Contrastive Analysis for Translation Students

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Reima Al-Jarf

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Contrastive Analysis for Translation Students

Reima Al-Jarf, Ph.D.
King Saud University
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PREFACE

I taught a course in Contrastive Analysis to undergraduate students majoring in translation several times. The course aimed at developing a contrastive analysis of English and Arabic for use by prospective English-Arabic and Arabic-English translators. The aim of the contrastive study was to produce a systematic comparison of salient aspects of the sound systems, grammars, lexicons, and writing systems of English and Arabic. Psycholinguistic implications of structural similarities and differences between the two languages for Arab learners of English were indicated. The result of the contrastive analysis was used to provide a basis for more sophisticated and effective translation of Arabic and/or English texts and to illustrate these applications by the translation of a set of specimen of English and Arabic texts.

The course started in 1990. The Arabic-English contrastive analysis course assumed the following structure: theoretical and methodological issues; comparing and contrasting English and Arabic phonetics; comparing and contrasting English and Arabic morphology (inflection, derivation and compounding); comparing and contrasting English and Arabic word formation; comparing and contrasting English and Arabic semantics; comparing and contrasting English and Arabic culture; comparing and contrasting English and Arabic writing systems; interference problems; and how to translate differences.

To obtain a description of a topic in the English and Arabic system, all standard works, references, available articles related to a particular problem were consulted. Analyses were written on the basis of specialized literature available and on the analyzer’s experience and intuition, consulting with experts in a particular area. The same was done for each topic in both systems. Then, the topic was examined contrastively and we got the first report on the CA of a grammatical or phonological unit.

I began to assemble my own corpus of English and semantically corresponding Arabic sentences on punch cards. The sentences were taken from novels, magazines, newspapers and scientific works. The corpus
consisted of 10,000 English sentences and the same number of Arabic sentences. The corpus was considered as an aid to my research.

This book has been prepared with three objectives in view: first, it is designed particularly to meet the needs of translation students. So, for example, the morphological systems of both languages are dealt with in considerable detail; many examples are given. Secondly, it is intended to be really comprehensive, in that it will, as far as possible, provide an answer to any problem the student is likely to encounter in their translation career. Lastly, it is meant to be a practical contrastive grammar, one that is suitable both for work in class and for students working on their own.

As I complete this book, I would like to thank Dr Mahasen Abu-Mansour of Um Al-Qura University and Dr Mushira Eid of the University of Utah, Dr Wasmiiyya Al-Mansour, Dr Ibrahim Al-Shamsan and Dr Othman Al-Fraih of King Saud University for valuable discussions. Thanks are also due to my students who gave an opportunity to explore aspects of Arabic linguistics that were new to me. Any shortcomings in this work are my sole responsibility.
Introduction

After reading this chapter, you will be able to define the following:

- Lexemes
- Morphemes, free morphemes, bound morphemes, allomorphs.
- Root, base, affix, prefix, suffix, infix
- Grammar, syntax, morphology,
- word-formation, derivation, compounding
- Derivational morphology and Inflectional morphology
- Exocentric and endocentric compounds
- Class-maintaining and class-changing morphemes
- Word formation
- Inflectional categories: number, gender, person, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity, comparison.
**Study of Grammar**

*Grammar* is the study of morphemes and their combinations. It comprehends two subdivisions: morphology and syntax. *Morphology* describes the combinations of morphemes in words. *Syntax* describes larger combinations of words. It is the arrangement of words as elements in a sentence, to show their relationship.

**Study of Morphology**

(Dictionary of Reading, 

*Morphology* is the study of the internal structure of words and of the rules by which words are formed. It is divided into two main branches: inflectional morphology and word-formation (lexical morphology). (Bauer). *Inflectional morphology* deals with the various forms of *lexemes* (), while *word-formation* deals with the formation of new lexemes from given bases. Word-formation can in turn be divided into derivation and compounding (or composition). *Derivation* is concerned with the formation of new lexemes by affixation, compounding with the formation of new lexemes from two or more potential stems. Derivation is sometimes subdivided into class-maintaining derivation and class-changing derivation. *Class-maintaining derivation* is the derivation of new lexemes which are of the same form class (part of speech) as the base from which they are formed, whereas *class-changing derivation* produces lexemes which belong to different form classes from their bases. Compounding is usually subdivided according to the form class of the resultant compound: that is, into compound nouns, compound adjectives, etc. It may also be subdivided according to the semantic criteria *exocentric, endocentric, appositional* and *dvanda* compounds. (Bauer).

Morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation. Hall.

**Definition of Morphemes**

(Lehman, Gleason, Stageberg)

In grammar, words are divided into morphemes. A *morpheme* is the
smallest meaningful unit of form which is grammatically pertinent. A morpheme is not identical with a syllable. It may consist of a single phoneme such as ‘a’ and may consist of one or more syllables as in ‘the’ and ‘between’. A morpheme may be free or bound. A free morpheme is one that can stand alone as a word or enter in the structure of other words as ‘boy, play, an’. A bound morpheme cannot be uttered alone with meaning. It always combines with one or more morphemes to form a word as (un-, dis-, -ment, -ing, -ed, -es).

Morphemes stand in a particular relationship to each other. In any word there is a central morpheme that has the principal meaning called a root or a base; and one or more subsidiary morphemes called an affix. Thus in spending, spend is the root or base and –ing is the affix. A root is an allomorph of a morpheme which has another allomorph that is a free form deep (depth). It is a borrowing from another language in which it is a free form or a base as in geology, pediatrics, microfilm. A word may contain one base and several affixes. A base may be free or bound. Any base may have more than one form. An affix may be directly added to a root or to a stem. A stem consists of a morpheme or a combination of morphemes to which an affix can be added. Some stems or words contain two or more roots. These are called compound stems. An affix is a bound morpheme that occurs before or behind a base. Roots are longer than affixes and much more numerous in the vocabulary. For example, in ‘unemployed’, ‘employ’ is central and ‘un-‘ and ‘-ed’ are peripheral. If an affix precedes the root it is called a prefix, if it follows the root, it is called a suffix, and if it is placed inside the root with which it is associated, it is called an infix. A word may contain up to three or four suffixes (educat-ion-al-ly, industri-al-iz-ation, general-iz-abl-ity), but prefixes a single prefix (en-large, ex-port, Trans-Atlantic, re-producible, deploy), except for the negative prefix un- before another prefix (un-re-turnable, un-). When suffixes multiply, there is a fixed order in which they occur.

A morpheme is a group of one or more allomorphs which vary widely in shape, in accordance with their environment. Many morphemes in English have only one allomorph. Few morphemes are used throughout all forms without more than one allomorph. English /ing/ is a morpheme that has only one shape. When allomorphs are determined by phonological criteria, they are phonologically conditioned. The modifications of bases and affixes in morphological processes are known as morphophonemic
changes, and their study is morphophonemics. Morphophonemics is the process by which morphemes vary in their pronunciation, e.g.: the plural morpheme /-s/ has three individual forms: /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/ and they constitute three allomorphs of the plural morpheme.

Bound morphemes are usually written with a hyphen on the side in which they are bound. So dis is written dis- and ment is written -ment. Free morphemes are written without hyphens. Braces // are used for morphemes and slants // for allomorphs; a tilda ~ means 'in alteration with', e.g.: /-d1/ = /-id/ ~ /-t/ ~ /-d/.

Aims of the Book
(Lehmann, Gleason, Lado,

The aim of this book is to describe the English and Arabic morphological systems in order to identify the similarities and differences between them. The process of comparing both systems will involve the analysis and description of the elements of morphology: inflection, derivation and compounding. Both descriptions will cover the form, the meaning and the distribution of morphemes. The distribution of morphemes is the sum of all the contexts in which they can occur. A full understanding of any morpheme involves understanding its distribution as well as its meaning. The various kinds of restrictions on the combinations of morphemes, the order in which morphemes can be arranged, sets of morphemes which can never occur together in the same word, classes of morphemes required to occur in certain circumstances will be given. Complex patterns of selection of allomorphs will be given. The type of meaning implied in the absence of any morpheme of a given order will be pointed out. All allomorphs will be listed and rules for the correct selection will be given. General morpho-phonemic statements which apply quite universally in the system will be made.

In describing the inflectional morphemes of English and Arabic the inflectional categories number, gender, person, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison will be defined, and under each inflectional category, the parts of speech inflected for that particular category will be listed. For each part of speech, the underlying portion, or
the base or root, and the modified items or affixes will be determined. The allomorphs will be identified and their distribution will be determined. The arrangement of inflected elements and any modifications involved will be determined. The meaning of lexical items containing each morpheme or set of morphemes will be given in the other target language.

In describing **English and Arabic derivational** morphemes, one must deal with formal characteristics and with meaning relationships. Stem formation will be described on the basis of the affixes used. For each affix the class or classes of stems (including roots) with which it is used and any pertinent restrictions within the class or classes; the class of stems produced; and any morphophonemic changes in either the affix itself or the stem will be described. (Gleason)

In describing **English and Arabic compounds**, the simple or naked words will be determined. Various compounds will be identified and the complex forms will be noted. Sequences will be accounted for. Compounds will be related to sentence patterns. They will be analyzed in accordance with the larger syntactic sequences of the language, and compounds will in turn illuminate these sequences. Classes of compounds will be set up, the patterning of the items themselves and their relationships with other comparable items in the language.

Secondly, all inflectional, derivational and compositional morphemes in each language will be summarized in compact outline form.

Thirdly, comparison of **English and Arabic** morphological systems will not be made, since **English and Arabic** are not cognate languages, i.e. genetically related. They are considerably different in the classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. There is no way to compare the forms within the classes. The inflectional morphemes and derivational and compounding processes do not match in any of the word classes.

Morphemic analysis of each language is hardly practical without close attention to the meanings of forms in the other language. This will be manipulated in the form of translations. Translation can obscure some features of meaning and falsify others. Meaning is a variable which is not subject to any precise control. Meaning will be used in combination with some facts of distribution. Meaning is also needed to assess the pertinence
of the distributional features.

Troublesome morphemes for Arabic-speaking students will be described. An English morpheme will be taken and how that morpheme may be translated will be given.
In this chapter, you will study the following:

- Inflectional categories: number, gender, person, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity, comparison.
- For each inflectional category, the English and Arabic systems will be described in detail. Illustrative examples will be given.
- Implications for translation from English into Arabic.
- Implications for translation from Arabic into English.
- Focus will be on the differences that exist between English and Arabic.
Introduction:
(def. Lehmann, Covell)

**Inflection** is a change in the form of words by which some words indicate certain grammatical relationships as **number, gender, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison**. **Inflectional morphology** is the body of rules that describe the manner in which a lexical item has a grammatical morpheme joined to its beginning or end. This grammatical morpheme shows a grammatical category of gender, number, person, tense, voice, mood, aspect, case, transitivity, or comparison. Inflectional categories may not be consistently indicated by the same inflectional morpheme. Some inflectional categories may have homonymous inflections. For example, the inflectional morpheme –s can be the third person Simple Present Tense inflectional morpheme as in *plays*, the Plural morpheme as in *cats, dogs*, and the Possessive inflectional morpheme as in the *boy’s book*. Inflectional morphemes may duplicate other syntactic information in the sentence. For nouns, pronouns, and adjectives classes of inflection are called **declensions**; for verbs they are called **conjugation**; and for adjectives they are called **comparison**. Parts of speech such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives may be identified by the inflection they undergo. **Inflectional morphemes** are those prefixes and suffixes that perform a grammatical function. In the following sections, the English and **Arabic** inflectional categories of **number, gender, case, tense, voice, mood, aspect, transitivity and comparison** will be described in detail.

1 Number

**Number** is the inflection of nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives and determiners to show singular, dual, or plural forms.

1.1 English Number Morphemes

(Stockwell, Stageberg, Gleason, Quirk & Greenbaum, Eckersley & Eckersley, Frank, Jackson, Covell, Webster Unabridged Dictionary)

English has two forms of number: **singular** and **plural**. Singular denotes only one and plural denotes two or more. Nouns, pronouns, verbs, the indefinite article and demonstratives are marked for number. Adjectives and the definite article are not marked for number. English subjects (head
nouns, and pronouns) and verbs show number agreement. Singular subjects (head nouns or pronouns) take singular verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs. English demonstratives and the indefinite article also show number agreement with the noun they modify.

**Number in Nouns:**

In English, the class NOUN is associated with an inflectional category NUMBER. The plural suffix /-s/ may be added to the base form which is singular to convert it to plural. This plural suffix has a large number of allomorphs. The following is a detailed description of the form, distribution, and meaning of the English plural suffix.

1. The regular plural suffix *-s* is added to singular nouns e.g.: cats, bats, boys, dogs. It is also added to nouns describing the people of a country (nouns of nationality) such as Americans, Germans, Iraquis, Greeks, Turks, Finns, and Spaniards.

2. The regular plural suffix *–s* is added to compound nouns. Some compound nouns, take the plural suffix *-s* in the first element as in passers-by, mothers-in-law; some take the plural suffix in both the first and the last elements as in women doctors; and others take the plural suffix in the last element as in assistant professors.

3. The suffix *-es* is added to singular nouns ending in /s, z, sh, ch, j/, e.g.: buses, dishes, churches, bridges, roses. It is added to singular nouns ending in *-y* preceded by a consonant as in sky, skies, spy, spies, story, stories. Nouns ending with *-y* preceded by a vowel take the plural suffix /-s/ as in boys, days, bays, storeys.

4. It is also added to singular nouns ending in /-o/ preceded by a consonant as in echoes, potatoes, heroes, embargoes, tomatoes, vetoes, torpedoes. Nouns ending with /-o/ preceded by a vowel take the plural suffix /-s/, e.g.: studios, radios, pianos. Some take the suffix /-os/ or /-oes/ as archipelago, buffalo, cargo, flamingo, halo, tornado, volcano, commando.
Nouns of unusual form, letters, numbers and signs take the plural suffix /-’s/, when thought of as things, e.g.: ’80’s, TA’s, A’s, B’s, 5’s, when’s, do’s and don’t’s

The plural suffix -s is pronounced [s] after a voiceless consonant as in cats; it is pronounced [z] after a voiced consonant as in dogs; and it is pronounced [iz] after [s, z, sh, ch, dj] as in bus, buses; rose, rose, bridges, churches, dishes.

The suffix /-s/ is not added to singular invariable nouns ending in -s. Although such nouns are plural in form, yet they are construed as singular, e.g.:

- News
- Some diseases: measles, German measles, mumps, rickets, shingles.
- Subject names ending in -ics: classics, linguistics, mathematics, phonetics, pediatrics, statistics, politics, economics, graphics, and astronautics. Nouns ending in -ics are singular when they denote scientific subjects, and plural when they denote activities and qualities such as acrobatics, acoustics.
- Some games: cards, billiards, bowls, dominoes, checkers.
- Some proper nouns: Algiers, Athens, Brussels, the United Nations.

The suffix /-s/ occurs in some plural invariable nouns. These nouns have no singular form, e.g.:

- Tools and articles of dress consisting of two equal parts which are joined: tongs, binoculars, pincers, pliers, scales, scissors, tweezers, glasses, spectacles, pyjamas, pants, shorts, tights, trousers.
- Other nouns that only occur in the plural are: the Middle Ages, annals, archives, arms, ashes, brains, clothes, the Commons, customs, earrings, fireworks, funds, goods, greens, guts, heads, lodgings, looks, manners, means, oats, outskirts, premises, remains, riches, savings, stairs, surroundings, troops, tropics, valuables.
A suffix zero, symbolized -0, indicating no formal change in the stem form, but with plural meaning, is used with collective nouns such as: cattle, clergy, gentry, people, police, youth.

Nouns ending in -f:

- Some singular nouns ending in -f form their plurals by voicing of the last consonant of the stem and adding the plural suffix -es, as in: wife, wives; leaf, leaves; half, halves; calf, calves; knife, knives; loaf, loaves; life, lives; self, selves; thief, thieves.

- Some singular nouns ending in -f have a regular plural: beliefs, chiefs, roofs, safes, proofs, cliffs.

- Some nouns ending in -f have both regular and voiced plurals: dwarfs, dwarves; handkerchief, handkerchiefs; hoof, hooves; scarf, scarves.

Some common nouns form their plural by a replacive allomorph. Here, plural formation involves mutation (internal change of vowel) as in: foot, feet; tooth, teeth; goose, geese; man, men; louse, lice; mouse, mice; woman, women. Some nouns that describe the people of a country (nouns of nationality) and end with -man also take the replacive allomorph -men as in Englishman, Englishmen.

The suffix /-en/ is used with or without additional changes in three words: brother, brethren; ox, oxen; child, children.

A suffix zero, symbolized -0, indicating no formal change in the stem form, but with plural meaning. Such nouns can be treated as singular or plural, e.g.:

- Some nouns of animal, bird and fish: sheep, sheep; fish, fish; pike, pike; trout, trout; carp, carp; deer, deer; salmon, salmon; moose, moose. Some animal names have two a zero plural and a regular plural. In such cases, the zero plural is the one used in the context of hunting (language of hunters and fishermen); the regular plural is used to denote different individuals, varieties or species.
Quantitative nouns referring to numbers and measurements when used after a number or a quantity word such as hundred, thousand, million, billion, dozen, brace, head (of cattle): one dozen, three dozen; one thousand, five thousand; one million, ten million.

Some nouns ending in -ies: series, series; species, species;
Nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns. Headquarters, headquarters; means, means.

Some nouns describing the people of a country ending in -ese or -ss, e.g.: Chinese, Chinese, Swiss, Swiss.

Other nouns: offspring, offspring; aircraft, aircraft.

(9) Certain singular loan words from other languages mostly Latin have retained the plural formation used in the original language. The following plural suffixes are used:

- Singular nouns ending in -us take the plural suffix -i as in: stimulus, stimuli; alumnus, alumni; locus, loci.

- Singular nouns ending in -a take the plural suffix -ae: alga,algae; larva, larvae.

- Singular nouns ending in -um take the plural suffix -a: curriculum, curricula; bacterium, bacteria; stratum, strata.

- Singular nouns ending in -ex, -ix take the plural suffix -ices: index, indices; appendix, appendices; matrix, matrices.

- Singular nouns ending in -is take the plural suffix -es: analysis, analyses; hypothesis, hypotheses; parenthesis, parentheses; thesis, theses.

- Singular nouns ending in -on take the plural suffix -a: criterion, criteria; phenomenon, phenomena.

- Singular nouns ending in -eau take the plural suffix -eaux: bureau, bureaux; plateau, plateaux.
Certain loan words have regular plural: bonus-es, campus-es, virus-es, chorus-es, circus-es, area-s, arena-s, diploma-s, drama-s, album-s, museum-s, stadium-s, electron-s, neutron-s, proton-s.

Foreign plurals often occur along with regular plurals. The foreign plural is commoner in technical usage, whereas the -s plural is more natural in everyday language. e.g.: appendix, appendixes, appendices; formula, formulas, formulae; criterion, criterions, criteria; dogma, dogmas, dogmata; medium, mediums, media.

Number in Verbs
In English, verbs are not fully inflected for number. Only the Present Third Person Singular is marked for number. The Present Third Person Singular is the form used with singular nouns, with he, she, it and words for which these pronouns will substitute and with word groups, e.g.: He goes She writes It eats The boy runs One thinks

The Present Third Person Singular morpheme /-S3/ has the same allomorph in the same distribution as the plural and possessive forms of the noun: /-s/, /-z/ and /-iz/ as in stops, plays, drives, pushes, changes. (See sections above and below).

Number in Pronouns
The English pronoun system makes distinctions for number. Number distinctions occur with the first person (I, we); and third person (he, she, it, they). The second person pronoun (you) is unmarked for number. English also makes number distinctions in definitive pronouns, e.g.: one, ones; other, others.

Number in Determiners
English articles and demonstratives in some forms show number agreement with the noun they modify. The indefinite article occurs only before singular nouns \textit{(a book, an orange)}. However English demonstratives have singular-plural forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>This book</td>
<td>these books</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>That boy</td>
<td>those boys</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.1 Arabic Number Morphology

Arabic has three forms of number: singular, dual and plural. Singular denotes only one, dual denotes two individuals of a class or a pair of anything and plural denotes three or more. Nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives are marked for number. The definite article is not marked for number. Arabic subjects and verbs, demonstratives and nouns, adjectives and nouns, and relative pronouns and nouns show number agreement. Arabic demonstratives show agreement with the noun they precede, adjectives and relative pronouns show agreement with the noun they modify (follow). Singular subjects take singular verbs; dual subjects take dual verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs.

Number in Nouns and Adjectives

In Arabic, the classes NOUN and ADJECTIVE are associated with an inflectional category NUMBER. A dual suffix and a plural suffix are added to the base form which is singular to convert it to dual and plural. The dual suffix has few allomorphs; the plural suffix has a large number of allomorphs. The following is a detailed description of the dual and plural suffixes and their allomorphs, their distribution and meaning.

Dual

(1) The dual morpheme has a number of variants. The distribution of the dual morpheme and its variants is as follows: /-aani/ is added to the singular base form of nouns and adjectives in the nominative case; /-aan/ is added to the base form in the nominative case before a pause; /-aa/ is added before another apposited noun; /-ayni/ and /-ayn/ are
added to the base form of the noun in the oblique (accusative or genitive) case as in:

<table>
<thead>
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<th>nom.</th>
<th>accus. &amp; gen.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>أُكُنَّا</td>
<td>أُكَنَّانَ</td>
</tr>
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<td>كُنَّا</td>
<td>كَنَّانَ</td>
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<tr>
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<td>أُكُنُّانَ</td>
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<td>وُلْدانَ</td>
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<td>ظَتانَ</td>
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<td>وُلْدَٰ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كَتَابُ</td>
<td>كَتَابَانَ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) Collective nouns denoting two groups of something take the dual suffix -aaani, -aan, -aa, -ayni, -ayn, -ay:

| جَمَاعَةٌ | جَمَاعَتانَ | جَمَاعَٰ |
| بَلَادٍ | بَلَادَانَ | بَلَادَٰ |
| جَنُودٍ | جَنُودَانَ | جَنُودَٰ |
| خِيَلٍ | خِيَلَانَ | خِيَلَٰ |
| جَيْشٍ | جَيْشَانَ | جَيْشَٰ |
| شَعَبٍ | شَعَبانَ | شَعَبَٰ |
| قَوْمٍ | قَوْمَانَ | قَوْمَٰ |

(3) Changes /ٰ/ before the dual suffix, if the singular base form ends in /ٰ/:

| تَطَابْ | تَطَابْانَ | تَطَابْٰ |
| تَطَابْ | تَطَابْانَ | تَطَابْٰ |
| تَطَابْ | تَطَابْانَ | تَطَابْٰ |

(4) Changes /ٰ/ into /ٰ/ or /و/ before the dual suffix, when the singular base form ends in a quiescent /ٰ/:

| مَبْنِيَ | مَبْنِيانَ | مَبْنِٰي |
| مَبْنِيَ | مَبْنِيانَ | مَبْنِٰي |
| مَبْنِيَ | مَبْنِيانَ | مَبْنِٰي |

(5) The feminine /ِ/ is changed to /و/ before the dual suffix, if the singular base form ends in /ِ/:
(6) B is restored before the dual suffix, if a final B is deleted from the singular base form:

\[
\text{o } a \text{ t } \text{ k } a
\]

\[
\text{j } a \text{ t } \text{ k } a
\]

(7) w is deleted before the dual suffix in nouns like:

\[
\text{a } a \text{ a } d \text{ a}
\]

\[
\text{p } a \text{ a } d \text{ a}
\]

\[
\text{s } p \text{ a}
\]

(8) Some nouns occur only in the dual and have no singular base form:

\[
\text{j } a \text{ u} \text{ u}
\]

(9) Some nouns are dual in form, but singular meaning:

\[
\text{j } a \text{ u} \text{ u}
\]

(10) In compound nouns consisting of a noun + an apposited noun, the dual suffix is added to the first element:

\[
\text{i } a \text{ a} \text{ a} \text{ a} \text{ a}
\]

In verbal compounds or agglutinated compounds, the dual allomorph \text{d} or \text{d} is added before the compound:

\[
\text{a } a \text{ d } d \text{ a} \text{ a} \text{ a}
\]

**Plural**

(1) Plural forms may be sound or broken. Sound plural forms are either masculine or feminine. The plural morpheme has a large number of variants. Their distribution is as follows: The sound masculine variants are /-uuna/, /-uun/, /-uu/, /-iina/, /-iin/, /-ii/. The suffix /-uuna/ is added
to the singular masculine base form in the nominative case to convert it to sound masculine plural; /-uun/ is used in the nominative case before a pause; /-uu/ is used before another apposited noun; /-iina/ is used in the oblique (accusative and genitive) case; /-iin/ is used in the oblique (accusative or genitive) case before a pause, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ﻣﻌﻠﻢ} & \text{ﻣﻌﻠﻤﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻣﻌﻠﻤﲔ} \\
\text{ﻧﺸﻴﻂ} & \text{ﻧﺸﻴﻄﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻧﺸﻴﻄﻮﻥ} \\
\text{ﺍﻛﺮﻡ} & \text{ﺍﻛﺮﻣﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﻛﺮﻣﲔ} \\
\text{ﺍﳌﺪﺭﺳﺔ} & \text{ﻣﻌﻠﻢ} & \text{ﺍﳌﺪﺭﺳﺔ} & \text{ﻣﻌﻠﻤﻮ} & \text{ﺍﳌﺪﺭﺳﺔ} & \text{ﻣﻌﻠﻤﻲ} \\
\end{array}
\]

(2) ﻃ is deleted before the plural suffix, if the singular base form ends in ﻃ

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ﻣﺮﺏﹴ} & \text{ﻣﺮﺑﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻣﺮﺑﲔ} \\
\text{DCALL} & \text{DCALL} & \text{DCALL} \\
\end{array}
\]

(3) ﺖ is deleted and substituted by fat-ha /a/ before the plural suffix:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ﻣﺼﻄﻔﻰ} & \\
\text{ﻡﺼﻄﻔﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻡﺼﻄﻔﻴ} \\
\text{ﻣﺴﺘﺒﻘﻰ} & \\
\text{ﻡﺴﺘﺒﻘﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻡﺴﺘﺒﻘﻴ} \\
\end{array}
\]

Some nouns have an invariable plural form. The substantive ﺖ ends in the plural suffix -uu, but has no singular base form.

(4) Some quasi-sound plural end in the plural suffix:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ﺳﻨﻮﻥ} & \text{ﲦﺎﻧﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻋﺸﺮﻭﻥ} & \text{ﺑﻨﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺭﺿﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺭﻣﻀﺎﻥﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺧﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺑﻮﻥ} & \text{ﻋﺎﲰﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﻫﻠﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺳﺪﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺳﻔﺪﻮﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺳﻔﻴﻥ} & \text{ﺍﺳﻔﻴﻨ} \\
\end{array}
\]

(5) masculine nouns ending in feminine /?/ substitute their final /a/ by ﻃ before the plural suffix:

\[
\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ﺑﺒﻐﺎﺀ} & \\
\text{ﺑﺒﻐﺎﻭﻭﻥ} & \text{ﺑﺒﻐﺎﻭﻭﻳﻦ} \text{ﺣﺮﺑﺎﺀ} & \\
\text{ﺣﺮﺑﺎﻭﻭﻥ} & \text{ﺑﺎﻭﻳﻦﺣﺮ} \\
\end{array}
\]
However, final /ʔ/ is not substituted by w when it is original in the base form:

(6) In compound nouns consisting of a noun and an apposited noun, the plural suffix is added to the first element.

The plural allomorph /ː/ or /ːː/ is added to the base form of agglutinated compounds, verbal compound nouns:

(7) Some nouns ending in the plural suffix -uun, or -iin are plural in form, but have a singular meaning:

(8) The feminine plural suffix /-aat/ is added to the singular base form of the feminine noun or adjective to convert it to plural, e.g.:

(9) The sound feminine plural suffix is also added to the singular base form of proper names of women, names of men ending in /g/ most substantives ending in /g/ names of letters, names of months, some derived nouns, and all diminutives, nouns of place, time and tools and instruments (not triliteral) not ending in the feminine /g/ most singular nouns of foreign origin (borrowed words):

female names /ː/ /ːː/
Sometimes, the addition of the sound feminine plural suffix involves an internal change in the base form, e.g. /ʔ/ changes to /w/, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{ amatî } \rightarrow \text{ amatî} \\
\text{ amatî } \rightarrow \text{ amatî}
\end{array}
\]

(11) The addition of the sound feminine plural suffix involves a deletion of a consonant in the base form. Final ґr ґ is deleted before the feminine plural suffix. Sometimes, /w/ is added, /aa/ is deleted:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{ amatî } \rightarrow \text{ amatî} \\
\text{ amatî } \rightarrow \text{ amatî}
\end{array}
\]

When the singular base form ends in /aat/, final ґs deleted and aa
changes to 邠 or w:

(12) Final پ of the base form changes into 邠 before the sound feminine plural suffix:

(13) /w/ or /h/ is sometimes added before the feminine plural suffix:

(14) Some nouns ending in the feminine plural suffix have a singular meaning:

(15) Some feminine plural invariable nouns ending in /-aat/ have no singular base form: گرsylvania

(16) Substantives of dual gender take two plural suffixes: the feminine plural suffix and the masculine plural suffix:

**Broken Plurals**

Unlike sound masculine and feminine plurals, broken plurals are not formed by the addition of a plural suffix. They are formed by many suppletive allomorphs which involve some internal change such as the addition or deletion of a consonant or by a change of vowels. There are a large number of derivational patterns according to which broken plurals can be formed. Both masculine and feminine singular nouns may have broken plural forms, e.g.:

20
(1) Some replace their entire stem by a wholly different stem as in alus. Sometimes there is no derivational relationship between the singular and the broken plural form, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{alus} & \text{âl\textcircled{a}n} \\
\text{âl\textcircled{a}} & \text{ân}
\end{array}
\]

(2) As to the meaning of broken plural forms, some broken plural patterns denote paucity, others denote multiplicity. Plurals of paucity refer to persons and things between 3-10, whereas plurals of multiplicity are used for eleven to an endless number of persons or things.

(3) Many singular nouns have several broken plurals sometimes with different meanings, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{âl\textcircled{a}} \quad \text{âl\textcircled{a}n} \\
\text{ân} & \text{ân\textcircled{n}} \\
\text{âl\textcircled{a}n} & \text{âl\textcircled{a}n\textcircled{n}}
\end{array}
\]

(4) Some masculine and feminine proper nouns have two plural forms: a sound plural and a broken plural:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{âl\textcircled{a}} \quad \text{âl\textcircled{a}n} \\
\text{âl\textcircled{a}n} & \text{âl\textcircled{a}n\textcircled{n}}
\end{array}
\]

(5) Some feminine singular nouns that do not end in g and that consist of more than three radicals may have a sound feminine or broken plural:

\[
\begin{array}{l}
\text{âl\textcircled{a}n} \quad \text{âl\textcircled{a}n\textcircled{n}} \\
\text{âl\textcircled{a}n\textcircled{n}} & \text{âl\textcircled{a}n\textcircled{n}\textcircled{n}}
\end{array}
\]
(6) The elative has a sound masculine and a broken plural:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{اکرم} & \text{اکرمون} \\
\text{اکام} & \text{اکامون} \\
\end{array}
\]

(7) Collective nouns that have no singular base form such as:

\[
\text{اشفح} 
\]

However, these collective nouns may pluralize as follows:

\[
\text{اشفحت} 
\]

(8) Genus., formed by deleting the suffix  \( \text{sville} \) or relative noun  \( \text{b} \) from the singular form:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{غنم} & \text{غنم} \\
\text{غم} & \text{غم} \\
\text{لم} & \text{لم} \\
\text{لم} & \text{لم} \\
\end{array}
\]

(9) Some nouns have an invariable singular form. The singular and the plural forms are the same:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{لد} & \text{لد} \\
\text{ألك} & \text{ألك} \\
\text{خيم} & \text{خيم} \\
\text{به} & \text{به} \\
\text{مرو} & \text{مرو} \\
\end{array}
\]

(10) Some nouns have an invariable broken plural form. They have no singular form:

\[
\text{أجود} 
\]

22
Abstract nouns referring to the genus

**Number in Adjectives**

- Arabic makes number distinctions in adjectives. An adjective may be singular, dual or plural.

- Dual adjectives are formed by adding the dual suffix /-aan, -aani/ to the singular form in the nominative case; and by adding the suffix /-ayn, -ayni/ to the singular form in the oblique (accusative or genitive case), e.g.:
  
  m  
  f  

  The distribution of the adjective dual suffix and its allomorphs is the same as that of the noun dual suffix.

- Like nouns, plural adjectives are either sound (masculine or feminine) or broken; Sound masculine plural adjectives are formed by adding the plural suffix /-uwn/ to the singular form in the nominative case; and by adding the suffix /-iyn/ to the singular form in the oblique (accusative or genitive case). Sound feminine plural adjectives are formed by adding the suffix /-aat/ to the singular form. e.g.:
  
  m  
  f  

  The distribution of the adjective plural suffix and its allomorphs are the same as that of the noun plural suffix and its allomorphs.

- Number is an obligatory category in adjectives when they follow the noun that they modify. Singular nouns are modified by singular adjectives, a dual noun is modified by a dual adjective and a plural noun is modified by a plural adjective, e.g.:

  Singular  dual  plural
**Number in Verbs**

In Arabic, perfect (past), imperfect (present) and imperative verbs are inflected for number. Perfect and imperative verbs are marked for number by a pronominal suffix and imperfect verbs are marked for number by a pronominal prefix and suffix each of which has several allomorphs. The distribution of the perfect, imperative and imperfect pronominal number prefix and suffix and their variants are as follows: In perfect verbs, the suffix -tu, -ta, -ti, are singular; tumaa and humaa are dual; and -naa, -tu is used for the first person singular; -ta is used for the second person singular masculine, -ti for the second person singular feminine, 0 suffix is used with the third person masculine singular and feminine; -tumaa is used for the second person masculine and feminine dual; -humaa is used for the third person masculine and feminine dual; -naa is used for the first person plural; -tum is used for the second person plural masculine; -tunna is used for the second person feminine plural; -uu is used for the third person masculine plural and -na is used in the third person feminine plural. (See table ( ) for example.

In the imperative, verbs are inflected for number in the second person only. The suffix -aa is used for the second person feminine and masculine dual; -uu is used for the second person masculine plural and -na is used for the third person feminine plural and 0 suffix is used for the singular. (See Table for examples.

In the imperfect tense, the imperfect prefix ?a- is singular, na- is plural; ta- and ya- are oblique (used for singular, dual and plural). The Imperfect pronominal suffix -aa is used for the dual; -uu is used for the masculine plural and -na is used for the feminine plural and 0 suffix is used for the first, second and third person singular. (see Table () for examples).
Fully inflected verbs are classified into sound, doubled, and verbs containing a glottal stop (verbs with initial, medial or final glottal stop). When a pronominal suffix is added to a sound perfect or imperfect verb, no changes take place in the radicals of the base form, e.g.:

**Perfect:** sharibtu, sharibta, sharibti, shariba, sharibat; sharibtumaa, sharibaa, sharibataa; sharibnaa, sharibtunna, sharibuu, sharibna.

**Imperfect:** ?ashrab, tashrab, tashrabiin, yashrab; tashrabaan, yashrabaan; nashrab, tashrabuun, tashrabna, yashrabuun, yashrabna.


When a pronominal suffix is added to a perfect, imperfect, or imperative verb with a glottal stop, no changes take place als of the base form, e.g.:


**Imperative:** The glottal stop is deleted in the imperative form, when it is initial and medial e.g.: kul, kulii, kulaa, kuluu, kuln; sal, salii, salaa, saluu, salna; ?iqra?, ?iqra?ii, ?iqra?aa, ?iqra?uu, ?iqra?na.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a doubled verb, no changes take place in the radicals in the imperfect, but the geminated third radical is substituted by two separate consonants in the first and second person, and the base form remains the same in the third person singular. In the imperative, two forms may be used: one with a geminated consonant and one with two separate consonants, e. g.:
- **Imperfect**: ?ashudd, tashudd, tashuddiin, yashudd, tashudd;
yashuddan, tashuddan; nashudd, tashudduun, tashuduna,
yashudduun, yashuduna.

- **Perfect**: shadadtu, shadadta, shadadi, shadda, shaddat;
shadadtuaa, shaddaa, shaddataa; shadadnaa, shadatum,
shadadtnna, shadduu, shadadna.

- **Imperative**: shudd, ?ushdud; shuddii, ?ushdudii; shuddaa,

Weak verbs 阿拉伯人 are verbs whose root (base form) contains w or y.
There are four kinds of weak verbs: verbs in which the first radical consists
of w or y (verbs with an initial w or y); verbs in which the second radical
consists of w or y; verbs in which the third radical consists of w or y (verbs
with a final w or y); triliteral verbs in which the first and the third radical
consist of w and y; and quadiliteral verbs in which the first and the third
radical or the second and the fourth radical consist of w, y or aa.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a triliteral verb with an initial
w, the base form is retained in the perfect, but w is deleted in the imperfect
and imperative. The imperative glottal stop is also deleted. Verbs with an
initial y do not undergo any change in their form when attached to a
pronominal suffix.

- **Perfect**: waqa9atu, waqa9ta, waqa9ti, waqa9, waqa9at;
waqa9tuma, waqa9a, waqa9ataa; waqa9na, waqa9tun,
waaqa9tunna, waqa9uu, waqa9na.

- **Imperfect**: ?aqa9, taaqa9, taqa9iin, yaqa9, taqa9, yaqa9aan,
taqa9aan; naqa9, taqa9uun, taqa9na, yaqa9uun, yaqa9na.

- **Imperative**: qa9; qa9ii, qa9aa; qa9uu, qa9na.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a triliteral verb with a medial
aa, aa is deleted from the base form in the perfect in the first and second
person and is retained in the third person. It is also deleted in the imperative.
In the imperfect, aa changes into uu or ii in the imperfect.
Perfect: qultu, qulna, qulta, qulti, qultumaa, qultum, qultunna, qaala, qaalat, qalaa, qalataa, qaluu, qulna. 9ishtu, 9ishnaa, 9ishta, 9ishti, 9ishtumaa, 9ishtum, 9ishtunna, 9aasha, 9aashat, 9aashaa, 9aashataa, 9aashuu, 9ishna.

Imperfect: ?aquul, taquul, taquuliin, taquulaan, taquuluun, taquulna, yaquul, taquul, yaquulaan, yaquulaan, yaqulna, ?h9iish, na9iish, ta9iish, ta9iishiin, ta9iishaan, ta9iishuun, ta9ishna, 9aash, 9aashat, 9aashaa, 9aashataa, 9aashuu, 9ishna.

Imperative: qul, quuli, quulaa, quulu, qulna. 9ish, 9iishii, 9iishaa, 9iishuu, 9ishna.

When a pronominal suffix is added to a trilateral verb with a final "aa", it changes to "uu" or "ii".


Imperfect: ?ad9uu, nad9uu, tad9uu, tad9iin, tad9iyaan, tad9uun, tad9iina, yad9uu, tad9uu, yad9iyaan, tad9iyaan, yad9uun, yad9iin.

Imperative:
triliteral verbs with an initial and a final w or y
quadiliteral verbs with an initial and a final w or y
Defective verbs such as the negative verb laysa,
Uninflected verbs such as

Number is an obligatory category in the verb, when it follows the subject. A singular subject takes a singular verb, a dual subject takes a dual verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb. However, the verb does not agree with the subject in number when it precedes it. The singular form of the verb is used when it precedes the subject. e.g.:

Sub. + V V + Sub.
Number in Pronouns

The Arabic pronoun system makes distinctions for number. Number distinctions occur with independent and pronominal suffixes in the first, second, and third person and in the nominative, and oblique (accusative and genitive cases). The independent nominative pronouns ?anaa, ?anta, ?anti, huwa and hiya are singular; ?antumaa, and humaa are dual; nahnu, ?antum, ?antunna, hum, hunna are plural. The independent accusative pronouns ?iyyaya, ?iyyaka, /iyyaki, /iyyahu, /iyyaha are singular; /iyyakumaa, and /iyyailh are dual; /iyyanaa, ?iyyakum, /iyyakunna, /iyyahum, /iyyahunna are plural. As to pronominal suffixes, nominative pronominal suffixes were mentioned in section (verb section above). The oblique (accusative and genitive) pronominal suffixes, -ii, -ka, -ki, -hu, -ha are singular; -kumaa, -humaa are dual; -kum, -kunna, -hum, -hunna are plural. (See Table).

Number in Relative pronouns

Arabic relative pronouns show number distinctions. A dual suffix that has a number of allomorphs is added to the singular base form of the singular relative pronoun to convert it to dual and a plural suffix that has a number of replacive allomorphs are used to form the masculine and the feminine plurals. The relative pronouns ?aina and ?a are singular; /ain, /a are dual; and /ain, /a are plural.

Relative pronouns agree in number with the noun they follow as follows:
**Number in Demonstratives**

Arabic demonstratives are marked for number. A demonstrative may be singular, dual or plural. Dual and plural demonstratives are not formed by the addition of a dual or plural suffix; rather, the dual is formed by a replacive suffix, and the plural is formed by a suppletive suffix. The demonstrative pronouns ذاك، ذانك، هذى، تلذى هذان، هذين، أولئك، هؤلاء are singular; هذاك، هذان، هذين، أولئك، هؤلاء are dual and هؤلاء are plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>dual</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ذاك</td>
<td>ذلك</td>
<td>أولئك</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ذانك</td>
<td>ذانك</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>هذى</td>
<td>هذى</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تلذى هذى</td>
<td>تلذى هذى</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>أولئك</td>
<td>أولئك</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
<td>هؤلاء</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arabic demonstratives show agreement with the noun they modify. Singular nouns are modified by a singular demonstrative, dual nouns are modified by dual demonstratives and plural nouns are modified by plural demonstratives, e.g.:
1.1 Implications for Translation

English and Arabic are not cognate languages, i.e. genetically related. They are considerably different in the classes that are characterized by inflectional affixes. Arabic has inflection in the nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative and demonstrative pronouns; English has inflection in all these except adjectives. In Arabic, Inflectional affixes may be prefixes (in verbs), suffixes; in English they are suffixes only. Arabic has three number forms: singular, dual and plural; English has singular and plural.

1.3.1 Translation from English

Translating Singular and Plural Forms:

Although English and Arabic differ in the type of number morphemes, their variants and distribution, yet the number morphemes in both languages are generally similar in meaning.

None of the English plural suffixes can be used freely with any stem. The English plural suffix is characterized by having a large number of variants. This makes English irregular plurals unpredictable, and the student has to learn them as individual items. Translation students in particular have to learn which stems take /-en/, and which take /-a/; whether such suffixes are allomorphs of one suffix and whether they are distinct suffixes. There is practical value in knowing that /-en/ in oxen is an allomorph of /-z/ in boys, for this tells us that oxen functions in English in a similar way to /-z/ in boys, and tables. (Gleason).

Translating Countable Nouns

Countable nouns are those that can have both singular and plural forms. Most common nouns are countable. Some have a singular form but no plural form. Countable nouns form their plural by adding the plural suffix or any of its variants. They are preceded by a, an, one, many, few, this, these, those, a number like two, three, five.
The Arabic equivalent to an English singular countable noun is singular and to an English plural countable noun is always plural in regular and irregular variable nouns that have both singular and plural forms, e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eng.</th>
<th>Ar</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>ﻭﻟﺪ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calf</td>
<td>ﺪﻮز</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ox</td>
<td>ﻋﺸ ﺪ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foot</td>
<td>ﻭﻘ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>radius</td>
<td>ﺣﻨ ﺪ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>larva</td>
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<td>stratum</td>
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<td>plateau</td>
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<td>American</td>
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<td>Finn</td>
<td>ﺑﺎﻴ ﺪ</td>
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<td>Englishman</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pakistani</td>
<td>ﺑﺎﻴ ﺔ</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Translating English Uncountable Nouns**

Uncountable nouns refer to masses which cannot be easily thought of as consisting of separate items as substances, liquids, gases, and abstract ideas: Uncountable nouns have no plural form and hence do not take the plural suffix or any of its variants. The Arabic equivalent to English singular invariable concrete uncountable nouns is also a singular uncountable noun:

<table>
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<th>Eng.</th>
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<tr>
<td>wood</td>
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<td>silk</td>
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<td>gold</td>
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<td>flour</td>
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<td>rice</td>
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<td>meat</td>
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<td>fish</td>
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<td>fruit</td>
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<td>rain</td>
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<td>water</td>
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<td>juice</td>
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<td>tea</td>
<td>ﻳﺪ</td>
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<tr>
<td>air</td>
<td>ﻳﺪ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Uncountable nouns take a singular verb. They do not take an article. They may be preceded by quantity words like half of, little, some, any, all, and much.

Many nouns have both a countable marked plural and an uncountable unmarked plural, e.g.: time ﺭﻭﻗﺖ, times ﺍﺣﻴﺎﻥ; paper ﻭﺭﻕ, papers ﺍﻭﺭﺍﻕ; water ﻣﺎﺀ, waters ﻣﻴﺎﻩ; wind ﻊﻴﻦ, winds ﺭﻴﺎﺡ; talk ﻣﺤﺪﻳﺚ, talks ﻢﺤﺎﺩﺛﺎﺕ; light ﻥﺐ, lights ﺍﻧﻮﺍﺭ; rock ﺱﺨﺮ, rocks ﺱﺨﻮﺭ; hair ﺷﻌﺮ, hairs ﺷﻌﲑﺍﺕ. The countable is used for separate items or things, whereas the uncountable is used for an amount of the material or substance. The Arabic equivalent to the uncountable form is generally singular and to the countable nouns plural.

A countable noun describes a kind or a type of X whereas the X is the uncountable noun 'Tea and coffee are two popular drinks'. Nouns for liquids which are uncountable nouns can be used as countable nouns meaning a glass or cup of X or a type of X, e.g.: 'I drank two coffees', 'I bought three fruits'.

Unit words like piece, lump, item, sheet, a bar of, a lock of, a slice of, a stick of can be used to divide uncountable nouns into countable units. When translating English uncountable nouns in their countable form, the Arabic equivalent in most cases contains a unit noun, and in some cases a singular noun is used:

- A piece of furniture: ﺃﺛﺎﺙ ﻓﻄﻌﺔ
- An item of news: ﺧﺒﺮ
- A length of rope: ﺢﺒﻞ ﻓﻄﻌﺔ
A sheet of glass: 
A bar of chocolate: 
A lump of sugar: 
A stick of chalk: 
A piece/a bit of information: 
A block of ice: 
a lock of hair: 
A slice of bread: 
A piece of bread: 
A bit of fun: 

Students should note that, in most cases the English unit word is translated into an Arabic unit word. However, the Arabic equivalent is not always a literal translation of the English unit word.

When English unit nouns are used in the plural, their Arabic equivalents are also plural, e.g.:
Two bars of chocolate: 
Three slices of bread: 
Locks of hair: 
(English examples were taken from Leech pp. 490-491, 104-106.

Translating English Proper Nouns

The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable proper nouns is singular, e.g.: Henry the Thames

Translating English Nouns that have the Same Singular and Plural Form
Nouns that have the same singular and plural forms include nouns for birds, animals, and fish, nouns for people ending in -ese, or -ee; nouns referring to numbers and measurements when used after a number or a quantity word, nouns ending in -ies in the singular; nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns.

Nouns that have the same singular and plural form are translated into Arabic, have two Arabic equivalents, a singular equivalent and a plural equivalent. Thus the equivalents to sheep are ﺧﺮﺍﻑ羚狼, ﺧﺮﻭﻑ羚羚, ﻓﻴﺳ yum, ﻓﻴﺳﻓ羚羚, ﺗﺭﺍﻭﺕ羚羚, ﺗﺭﺍﻭﺕ羚羚, ﻓﺮﺍﺩ羚羚, ﻓﺮﺍﺩ羚羚, ﺵﻴﻠﻓ羚羚, ﺵﻴﻠﻓ羚羚, ﺗﺪﺍﺭ羚羚, ﺗﺪﺍﺭ羚羚. Some nouns of animal, bird and fish: sheep, sheep; fish, fish; pike, pike; trout, trout; carp, carp; deer, deer; salmon, salmon; moose, moose. Some animal names have two a zero plural and a regular plural. In such cases, the zero plural is the one used in the context of hunting (language of hunters and fishermen); the regular plural is used to denote different individuals, varieties or species.

- Some nouns ending in -ies: series, series; species, species;
- Nouns ending in -s in the singular and other nouns. Headquarters, headquarters; means, means.

**Translating English Singular Nouns Ending in -s (No Plural):**

The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable nouns that end with -s such as disease names, names of games, some proper names is singular: Measles ﻓﺴ, mumps ﻓﺴ, billiard ﺭﺒ, dominoes ﺭﺒ.
The Arabic equivalent to singular invariable nouns such as subject names ending in -ics may be singular or plural. Nouns ending in -ics are singular when they denote scientific subjects, and plural when they denote activities and qualities. Linguistics، mathematics، phonetics. But the Arabic equivalent to some subject names ending in -ics is singular: pediatrics، economics، politics، statistics. Astronautics، graphics، acrobatics، acoustics.

Although Arabic subject names ending in /-aat/ such as علوم، صوت، لغوية، الرياضيات، الصوتية، الرياضيات are plural in form, yet they are singular in meaning and the singular base form علوم، رياضي، صوتي are never used to refer to subjects. Singular forms have a different meaning.

The Arabic equivalent to names of tools and articles of dress consisting of two parts which are joined may be singular or plural depending on the context: scissors، قلص، ميزان، بناطيل، مالقات، دبابير. Sometimes the singular form of name of tools and articles of dress is distinguished by the use of 'pair of' when singular as in 'a pair of scissors'; 'a pair of pants'. In such a case, the equivalent is and not زوج. For the word means 'two' in Arabic, and hence the phrase means two pairs of scissors.
Translating English Plurals Ending in -s

The Arabic equivalent to other plural invariable nouns that end in /s/ and only occur in the plural is in some cases singular and plural in others and both are used in others: *The Middle Ages* : ﺍﻟﻌﺼﻮﺭﺍﻟﻮﺳﻂﻰ archives: ﺍﻟﻠﻴﻠﻪ ﺍﻟﻠﻴﻠﻲ ﻓﻲ ﺍﻟﻠﻴﻠﻪ ﺍﻟﻠﻴﻠﻲ 

*arms* : ﺍﺳﻠﺢ, ﺳﻼﺡ ashes : ﺭﻣﺎﺩ ﺭﻣﺎﺩ is an uncount noun in Arabic, *clothes* : ﻣﻼﺒﺲ the plural form is usually used in Arabic as in ﻣﻼﺒﺴﻲ ﺮﺕ ﻣﻐﻴ 

*contents* : ﻣﺤﺘﻮﻳﺎﺕ ﻣﺤﺘﻮﻳﺎﺕ occurs only in the plural when it refers to the table of contents of a book). *goods* : ﺏﻀﺎﻋﺔ (may be singular or plural), *means* : ﻋﻨﺪﺍﺕ (may be singular or plural), *outskirts* : ﺑﻴﺌﺔ ﻓﺎﻃﻴ Maths) : ﺗﺎﻟﻴﺪﺓ ﺗﺎﻟﻴﺪﺓ 

*premises* : ﺑﻴﺌﺔ, ﺳﻠﻢ, ﺧﻼﻕ, ﺳﻨﺎﻝ, ﻣﻌﻴﺪ ﺣﺎﻝ 

*remains* : ﺋﺎﺭ ﺋﺎﺭ (the plural form is commonly used, although there is a singular form ﺋﺎﺭ). *riches* : ﻧﻈﺮﺓ ﻧﻈﺮﺓ 

possessions land, goods, money etc. in abundance.; *stairs* : ﺗﺎﻟﻴﺪﺓ 

*surroundings* : ﻣﺤﻴﻂ, ﺧﻼﻕ, ﺳﻨﺎﻝ, ﻣﻌﻴﺪ ﺣﺎﻝ 

*ways of social life prevailing, social conditions or customs, polite ways of social behavior; valuables (a thing especially a small thing of value as a piece of jewelry ﻛﺒﻮﺭﺓ When it is in the singular it is an adjective and not a noun.

A few nouns have only a single form that of the stem, like tennis, courage, haste. Another group does not have a singular form but only that of the -s plural: *clothes, thanks, trousers, pants, binoculars, pliers*. These take they/them as a pronoun substitute and go with the plural form of the verb (my pants are dirty). Another group ends in the -s plural, words like *economics, politics, linguistics*, but these take it as a pronoun substitute and go with a singular form of the verb (mathematics is difficult). Nouns ending in -s like *ethics, news, pliers, measles*, may be either singular or plural, depending on the context in which they occur or on the nuance of meaning.
expressed.

**Translating English Collective Nouns (Unmarked Plurals)**

Collective nouns are nouns that represent a collection or group of individuals (people) animals or things, like family, team, committee, faculty, flock, press, council. They may be either singular or plural in meaning when they are singular in form. A speaker is likely to use singular verbs, determiners, or pronouns in connection with such nouns when he is thinking of the unit as a single whole, but he will use plural forms when he has in mind the separate individuals. If the collective noun is singular in meaning (the unit is thought of as a single whole), the Arabic equivalent is a singular collective noun such as: family ُ family; team ُ team; committee ُ committee. If such collective nouns are plural in meaning (thought of as separate individuals), the Arabic equivalent should include a unit word that refers to the single individual of the whole such as: family ُ family; team ُ team; committee ُ committee; faculty ُ faculty.

**Translating English Nouns That Have Two Plurals**

Some English nouns have two plurals with two meanings. In such a case, each plural has a different Arabic equivalent as in the following:

- **Brother**: brothers ُ brethren (of the same society)
- **Genius**: geniuses ُ genii
- **Fish**: fishes ُ fish
- **Index**: indexes ُ indices (algebraic sign)
- **Penny**: pennies (coins); pence (the value)
- **Pea**: peas

**Determining the Number of an English Noun:**

The number of a noun can be determined by paying attention to the following:
A noun is singular if it can be substituted by *he, him, she, her, it, this, or that*. It is plural if it can be substituted by *they, them, these, or those*.

The number of a noun may be signaled by a modifier like *several, many, this, that, these, these, fifteen* or by a pronoun reference like *his, her, their*.

When the noun functions as subject of a verb, its number is sometimes shown by the form of the verb. It is the singular noun that goes with the /-s3/ form of the verb. If the verb has a verb that does not change for singular and plural, e.g., *went*, one can usually substitute a form that does change (*are, play*).

(Stageberg).

Markers that indicate dual in an English text are: *both, either, neither,* when used as a pronoun or a determiner, e.g.:

Both I like these two books. I think I'll buy both = both of them (as a pronoun).
both of my brothers (both + of + plural n or Pro)
both my brothers (both + Plural NP or Pro)
both children (both + Plural NP without the)
I saw you both at the party last night. (Pro + both)
(Leech pp. 66-67)

Either is a pronoun which describes a choice between two alternatives:
There were trees on both sides of the road. (Determiner)
You can take either of these books. (Pro).
Leech pp. 129-130)

Neither is used as an indefinite pro (neither + of + plural NP)
Neither of these girls.
Neither girl (a determiner: neither + sing. N).
(Leech pp. 282-283).

**Number Agreement**

Cantarino pp.23-27
When the subject refers to persons, there is agreement in number between the subject and the predicate:

There is no subject-predicate agreement in number, when the predicate is a word like does not agree in number:

There is no subject predicate agreement in number, when the subject refers to animals or inanimate objects. The predicate is always singular:

When the independent pronoun refers to two people, the predicate is in the dual:

When it refers to more than two persons, the predicate is plural:

John and David are leaving

Collective nouns like take a singular predicate:

However, some collective nouns like

Collective nouns may be treated as a singular or a plural noun. Therefore, the modifying adjective may be singular or plural:
(8) Broken plurals that refer to ﺑﻌﺎﻗﻞ are followed by either feminine singular or feminine plural adjectives: ﻋﻠﻰ ﻣﻮﻠﻰ ﺟﻮ ﻋﻠﻰ ﻣﻮﻠﻰ ﺟﻮ. (Qabawa, p 197)

(9) Adjectives that are the feminine of ﺑﻌﻞ such as ﻳﻄﻴﺰ ﺗﺸﺎﻑ ﺗﻌﺰاً take a broken plural ﻳﻄﻴﺰ ﺗﺸﺎﻑ ﺗﻌﺰاً. However, adjectives that have no masculine equivalent take a feminine sound plural such as ﻳﻄﻴﺰ ﺗﺸﺎﻑ ﺗﻌﺰاً. Feminine adjectives that have no singular counterpart take a broken plural as ﻳﻄﻴﺰ ﺗﺸﺎﻑ ﺗﻌﺰاً. Qabawa p.

(10) Numeral-noun agreement

two books ﺗﺤ ٢

seven books ﺗﺤ ١٠

ten books ﺗﺤ ١٠٠

eleven books ﺗﺤ ١٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠

twenty books ﺗﺤ ٢٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠

twenty five books ﺗﺤ ٢٥٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠٠

**Translating English Pronouns**

English pronouns have singular and plural forms in the first and the third person only, the second person pronoun and relative pronouns are not marked for singular and plural forms. Arabic makes singular and plural distinctions in the first person pronouns. Second and third person pronouns have singular, dual and plural forms. Thus the English pronoun you has 10 Arabic equivalents in the nominative case (five independent and five pronominal pronouns) and 10 equivalents in the oblique (accusative and
genitive cases) (5 independent pronouns in the accusative case and five pronominal pronouns in the oblique (accusative and genitive case): The English pronoun they has 6 Arabic equivalents in the nominative case, and 6 equivalents in the oblique:

\[
\text{ān`tā, ān`tī, ān`tīm, ān`tīmā, ʾāyāk`nī, ʾāyāk`mā, ʾāyāk`nī, ʾāyāk`mā, ʾāyāk`mā, ʾāyāk`mā, ʾāyāk`mā, ʾāyāk`mā.}
\]

English shows no number distinction in the relative pronoun. Who, whom, that, which are not marked for number. Arabic, on the other hand, has singular, dual and plural forms for relative pronouns. Thus, in the translation of English sentences that contain any of the relative pronouns, the student should make sure that the equivalent Arabic relative pronoun is marked for number. The choice between the singular, dual and plural form depends on the noun preceding the relative pronoun, eg:

English also makes number distinctions in definitive pronouns, e.g.: one, ones; other, others.

**Translating English Determiners**

English has two articles: the definite article the and the indefinite articles a, an. Arabic has only a definite article al-. There is no Arabic equivalent to the English a or an. Indefiniteness in Arabic is shown by the deletion of the definite article /al-/ from the noun. However, when a noun that is preceded by a or an is to be translated into Arabic, the equivalent noun should be used without the article al-. Thus the boy would be ʾālābīt; the orange ʾālābīt would be ʾālābīt. The equivalent singular form of the noun is used in such cases as a, and 'an' are used with singular countable nouns.

English demonstratives have singular-plural forms. The Arabic equivalents to the singular form 'this' will be ʾālā, that ʾālā, these ʾālā.
those depending on the number and gender of the noun following the demonstrative. Gender and dual can be inferred from context.

**Translating English Verbs**

(1) In English, only the present third person singular is marked for number. It is the form used with singular nouns, with him, her, and it and with words for which these pronouns will substitute and with word groups, e.g.: *He goes, She writes, It eats, The boy runs, One thinks.* In Arabic, verbs are fully inflected for number by a pronominal suffix that is that is an inseparable part of the verb. In addition to the pronominal suffix, a noun or an independent pronoun is used as the subject of the verb. Verbs are marked for singular and plural in the first person, for the singular, dual and plural in the seconds and third person.

(2) Number is an obligatory category in the verb, when it follows the subject (which is a noun or an independent pronoun). A singular subject takes a singular verb, a dual subject takes a dual verb and a plural subject takes a plural verb. However, the verb does not agree with the subject in number when it precedes it. The singular form of the verb is used when it precedes the subject. e.g.:

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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**1.3.2 Translation from Arabic into English**

Arabic nouns can be categorized into a group of nouns that take the masculine sound plural suffix or its variants, a group that take the feminine
suffix or any of its variants, and a group that form their plural by the derivation. Some nouns have more than one plural: either several broken plurals, or a sound plural and a broken plural. In English there is no such classification. All nouns form their plural by suffixation. The plural suffix or any of its variants is added to the singular base form. So before translating any Arabic noun, the student should determine the lexical meaning of the Arabic noun, then find out whether the English equivalent is the kind of noun that takes the plural suffix -s, -es, -en, -'s, -ies, 0 suffix, -ves, -en, -ies, the foreign suffixes -i, -ae, -a, -ices, -es, -eaux, whether it is a loan word that has both a regular plural and a foreign plural form, a noun that has the same singular and plural forms, a noun that has an invariable singular form ending in -s, a noun that has a plural invariable form ending in -s; whether it is an uncountable noun that can sometimes take the plural suffix.

**Translating Arabic Dual Nouns**

The English equivalent to Arabic singular nouns is always singular; and to regular Arabic dual nouns ending with the dual prefix or any of its variants should be the plural form of the equivalent noun preceded by two, e.g.: \( \text{jāː} \) two boys; \( \text{kāː} \) two books. However, Arabic has dual nouns that do not refer to two identical individuals or things that are identical in form and meaning. Such invariable dual nouns have two different singular nouns, each of which does not constitute the base form from which the dual was formed. The singular base form for the dual noun \( \text{jāː} \) is not \( \text{āṭārā} \) but \( \text{yrāṭārā} \) and the English equivalent will be father and mother. Arabic has many invariable duals like \( \text{jāː} \) and in such case; the English equivalent consists of the two singular nouns that are referred to by the dual form, e.g.:

- \( \text{jāː} \)  \( \text{Makkah and Jerusalem} \)
- \( \text{jāː} \)  \( \text{the east and the west} \)
- \( \text{jāː} \)  \( \text{the tongue and the heart} \)
- \( \text{jāː} \)  \( \text{Tigris and the Euphrates} \)
Translating Arabic Plural Nouns

(1) Broken plurals differ from sound plurals in that sound plurals refer to several distinct individuals of the same genus, whereas broken plurals refer to a number of individuals viewed collectively. The idea of individuality is being wholly suppressed. They approach English abstract nouns. They are all of the feminine gender. They can only be used as masculine only by. A noun may have several plural forms like ﻣﺸﺎﺭﺊ ﻣﺸﺎﺭﺊ ﻣﺸﺎﺭﺊ Arabs usually there is no semantic difference between the various plural forms (Yushmanov p. 43).

(2) Some singular nouns have a sound and a broken plural, sometimes with different meanings. The sound plural refers to paucity, and the broken plural refers to multiplicity. If the sound plural is the only plural, then it is used for paucity and multiplicity at the same time.

- ﺗﻔﺎﺣﺔ apple
- ﺗﻔﺎﺣﺎﺕ (a number of apples)
- ﻲد ﺗﻔﺎﺡ (apples)
- ﻲد ﻲد ﺗﻔﺎﺡ (paucity: a number of trees, a countable noun)
- ﻲد (trees as opposed to grass, refers to the genus)
- ﻲد ﻲد (men),
- ﻲد ﻲد (men of letters)
- ﻲد ﺗﺒﺎﺕ a girl
- ﻲد ﺗﺒﺎﺕ girls

(3) Many singular nouns have several broken plurals sometimes with different meanings. For some nouns, one plural form indicates one meaning of the word; another plural indicates a second meaning. e.g.:
house, a line of verse

houses

lines of verse

worker, factor

workers

factors

saying

testimony, proverbs, sayings

rumors

eye, spring, spy

eyes, springs, spies

paucity: eminent people

paucity, eyes

sea, one who has wide knowledge in something,
meter of poetry

(seas),

(paucity),

(meters of poetry)

young man

young men,

Youth
Some broken plural patterns denote paucity; others denote multiplicity (abundance). Plurals of paucity refer to persons and things between 3-10, whereas plurals of multiplicity are used for eleven to an endless number of persons or things. There are four patterns for plurals of paucity:

The type of plural should be noticed carefully as that would have a

friend, companion, owner of

collective noun

prophet Mohammad’s friends

companions

paucity: a number of friends, few friends

research paper

many research papers

paucity: a number of research papers

water, little, too much

(waters),

(paucity )

Translating Arabic Collective nouns
Collective nouns like 

Translating Arabic Pronouns
The English equivalent to Arabic 

Translating Arabic Determiners
Since Arabic has no equivalent to the English indefinite article a or an, then, when translating Arabic nouns into English, the student should use the indefinite articles a or an before singular indefinite nouns. The indefinite article a should be used before a noun that begins with a consonant, and an should be used before a noun that begins with a noun.

I bought a book  
This is an orange

When translating Arabic demonstratives into English, the student should note that there is only one English equivalent to the two singular Arabic forms, and one plural form to the dual and plural Arabic demonstratives. Thus, the equivalent to 

Subject-verb agreement in Arabic
In An English translation, the student should note that English singular subjects take singular verbs and plural subjects take plural verbs.
In the present tense, if the noun is singular, the verb takes the suffix -s, if the noun is plural, the verb takes 0 suffix. The modals will, shall, can, may, must, etc do not have singular and plural forms. Verbs to do, to have and to be have singular and plural forms. Verbs in the past tense do not have singular and plural forms.

- The headword is the noun that marks plural in the subject. The head noun is not always next to the verb, e.g.:

- Singular nouns ending in -s take singular verbs, e.g.: news, measles mathematics, checkers, e.g.;
  Mathematics is difficult.

- Some plural nouns that do not end in the plural suffix -s take a plural verb, e.g.: men, women, children.
  Many women come to

- Uncountable nouns take singular verbs, e.g.;
  The tea is hot.

- When Collective nouns such as family, team, committee are used are subject, sometimes they are followed by a singular verb and sometimes they are followed by a plural verb:

- When the subject consists of two or more items joined by and, the subject is plural and is followed by a plural verb:
  Fatima and Leila go

- When a plural subject is preceded by a quantifier like some, any, either, neither and none, the subject sometimes takes a singular noun and sometimes a plural noun, e.g.:

- When the subject is preceded by number, majority, plenty, it takes a plural verb, e.g.:
  The majority of the students are in class.
  A number of students are in class.

Leech pp. 33-35.
Noun-adjective Agreement in Arabic

English adjectives are not inflected for number. So, when translating Arabic dual and plural adjectives, the English equivalent adjective is unmarked regardless of the number of the noun modified by the adjective.
2. Gender

Gender is a set of classes, or set of classes, governing the forms of nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives and articles; specifically, in English and Arabic, the masculine and the feminine gender. Gender terms and forms do not always refer to biological gender. The terms used to indicate gender vary, as in he Dutch common gender or the animate or inanimate gender of certain American Indian languages.

In English, Gender is indicated in the third person singular personal pronouns as the feminine 'she', the masculine 'he', and the neuter 'it'. The third person singular may or may not match sexual gender, as references to a ship as 'she' indicates, or to 'he' as an indefinite person.

2.1 English Gender Morphology

English makes gender distinctions. Where they are made, the connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is very close. The English gender system is logical or physical, based primarily on sex. Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. Some animals are included in this gender system (cow, tigress) and some persons may be excluded (baby). Things and some animals are in the gender category NEUTER. There are few trivial exceptions where things are referred to as it until it starts acting like a person. This system of classification results in one large class of neuter nouns and two relatively small classes of masculine and feminine nouns.

- Gender distinctions are not made in the article, verb, or adjective.

- Some pronouns are gender sensitive (the personal 'he', 'she', 'it' and the relative 'who' and 'which', but others are not (they, you, some, these...etc.). The English pronoun makes gender distinctions. Only in the third person singular forms. He (masculine), she (feminine), it (neuter). The it can refer to certain creatures of either sex- baby, cat- and to sexless things- car, beauty, and book. The others (I, we, you, they) are unmarked.

- Some personal m/f nouns are morphologically marked for gender. English has a small number of nouns with feminine derivational
suffixes. A feminine morpheme that has a number of variants is added to a masculine form or to a base morpheme. The distribution of the feminine suffix and its variants is as follows: the suffixes -ess, -ette, -a, -oine and -ester. All but one of these feminizing suffixes (-ster) are of foreign origin.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
<th>masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>duke</td>
<td>duchess</td>
<td>god</td>
<td>goddess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hero</td>
<td>heroine</td>
<td>emperor</td>
<td>empress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bridegroom</td>
<td>bride</td>
<td>host</td>
<td>hostess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stewardess</td>
<td>waiter</td>
<td>waitress</td>
<td>widower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>usher</td>
<td>usherette</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fiancé</td>
<td>fiancée</td>
<td></td>
<td>comedienne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry</td>
<td>Henrietta</td>
<td>George</td>
<td>Georgina</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- the variant --- is sometimes use as a 'gender marker', e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boy friend</td>
<td>girl friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man student</td>
<td>woman student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male-servant</td>
<td>maid-servant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male relative</td>
<td>female relative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- the variant --- is frequently used as a sex marker, when a given activity is largely male or female, e.g.:

- nurse: male nurse
- engineer: woman engineer

- The variant --- is used as a gender marker for any animate noun when they are felt to be relevant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>he-goat</td>
<td>she-goat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male-frog</td>
<td>female frog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.1 Arabic Gender Morphology

Arabic makes gender distinctions in nouns, adjectives, verbs, pronouns, relative pronouns and demonstratives. There are two genders: masculine and feminine. Persons, things and animals may be masculine or
feminine. The Arabic gender system is not logical or physical except in persons and animals. Male persons are masculine, female persons are feminine. Things may be masculine or feminine. The connection between the biological category 'sex' and the grammatical category 'gender' is not always very close. Arabic nouns have inherent gender with important grammatical consequences. This system of classification results in two large classes of masculine and feminine nouns.

**Nouns and Adjectives**

All Arabic nouns have inherent grammatical gender. Many nouns are not marked for gender, but they have a consistent gender association, just as the marked nouns do. Nouns referring to persons and animals have a grammatical gender and physical sex as well. There is no discernible logic in the gender assignment of any particular noun; but whatever the class (masculine or feminine), the grammatical consequences regularly appear in the rest of the sentence in the agreement of noun-adjective, noun-verb, noun demonstrative, and noun-relative pronoun in gender.

**Numeral-noun agreement.**

Like nouns, adjectives are either masculine or feminine. However, adjectives are morphologically marked for gender. Arabic has noun-adjective agreement.

The singular feminine adjective/noun suffix {-at} is added to the singular masculine base form of the noun or adjective to convert it to feminine. The singular feminine adjective/noun suffix {-at} has a number of feminine adjective/noun allomorphs. The distribution and meaning of the singular feminine adjective suffix {-at} is the same as the feminine noun suffix {-at}.

- The singular feminine/adjective noun suffix {-at} is added to the base form of the singular masculine adjective or noun to change it into feminine. The feminine suffix /-at/ is pronounced [\-ah] before a pause, e.g.:

```
mas. | fem.
---|---
طَالِبٌ | طَالِبة
مَعْلِمٌ | مَعْلِمَة
جَافٌ | جَافَة
```
The singular feminine allomorphs {-aa?} or َ?/ are added to base form of some nouns or adjectives. The addition of those two suffixes are accompanied by the deletion of the initial /?a-/, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{阿拉伯语} \\
\text{Kenya} \\
\text{Somalia} \\
\text{Egypt} \\
\text{Lebanon} \\
\text{Oman} \\
\text{Kuwait} \\
\end{array}
\]

Dual nouns and adjectives are either masculine or feminine as the dual suffixes {-aani} and {-ayni} are added to both the masculine and feminine base forms of the noun, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{阿拉伯語} \\
\text{ئماني} \\
\text{باني} \\
\text{ياني} \\
\text{كماني} \\
\end{array}
\]

The sound plural feminine adjective noun allomorph /-aat/ is added to the feminine singular base form of the adjective or noun to convert it to sound feminine plural, e.g.:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{阿拉伯語} \\
\text{ театральні} \\
\text{параді} \\
\text{кирові} \\
\text{леві} \\
\text{соя} \\
\end{array}
\]

Some nouns are not marked for gender. Some nouns have a dual gender (can be considered masculine or feminine):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{阿拉伯語} \\
\text{ заміна} \\
\text{відміна} \\
\text{данина} \\
\text{шаніна} \\
\text{живі} \\
\text{фіна} \\
\end{array}
\]

0 gender suffix is used with some adjectives and nouns derived after 12 patterns (have a personal dual gender) such as:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{阿拉伯語} \\
\end{array}
\]
Number-noun agreement

Noun-adjective agreement

Verbs

The Arabic verb is a combination of a verb part and a pronominal suffix or prefix. The pronominal suffix and prefix are a person-number-gender-tense-aspect-voice-mood marker. The base form of the verb is the third person masculine singular as in huwa katab. The feminine and masculine genders are denoted by a pronominal suffix in the perfect tense.
and by a combination of a prefix and pronominal suffix each of which has a number of variants depending on the person and tense-aspect paradigms.

The distribution of the feminine pronominal suffix and its variants in the perfect verb are as follows: /-at/ is used with the third person feminine singular hiya and dual humaa before the number suffix -aa as in hiya katab-at, humaa katab-at-aa; /-ti/ is used with the second person feminine singular ?anti katab-ti; /-tunna/ is used with the second person feminine plural ?antunna katab-tunna; /-na/ is used with the third person feminine plural hunna katab-na.

The distribution of the masculine pronominal suffix and its variants in the perfect tense are as follows: /-ta/ is used with the second person masculine singular as in ?anta katab-ta; /-tum/ is used with the second person masculine plural as in ?antum katab-tum, the masculine verb suffix /-uu/ is used with the third person masculine plural in hum katab-uu.

In the case of imperfect verbs, the distribution of the feminine prefix and the feminine pronominal suffix and their variants are as follows: /ta- and 0 are used with the third person feminine singular hiya and the third person masculine dual humaa as in: hiya ta-ktub; humaa ta-ktub-aa-n; /-ii/ and 0 are used with the second person feminine singular ?anti: ?anti ta-ktubi-n; /-na/ and 0 are used with the second person feminine plural ?antunna and the third person feminine plural hunna as in: (?antunna ta-ktub-na, hunna ya-ktub-na;

In the case of imperfect masculine verbs, the distribution of the masculine prefix and the masculine pronominal suffix and their variants are as follows: /ta-/ and 0 are used with the second person masculine singular ?anta or the second person masculine plural ?antum as in: ?anta ta-ktub, ?antum ta-ktubuun; /ya-/ and 0 are used with the third person masculine singular huwa, and dual humaa as in huwa ya-ktub, humaa ya-ktub-aa-n; /ya-/ and /-uu/ are used with the third person masculine plural hum as in hum ya-ktub-uu-n.

In the imperative mood, the distribution of the feminine suffix and its variants is as follows: /-ii/ is used with the second person feminine singular ?anti as in uktub-ii; /-na/ is used in the second person feminine plural ?antunna as in: uktub-na; /-uu/ is used in the second person masculine
plural ?antum as in: uktubuu; 0 suffix is used in the second person masculine singular ?anta and dual ?antumaa, e.g.: uktub, uktubaa.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Gender prefixes and suffixes in verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronoun</td>
<td>gender past  present imperative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?naa m/f</td>
<td>katab-tu         ?a-ktub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nahnu m/f</td>
<td>katab-na         na-ktub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anta m</td>
<td>katab-ta         ta-ktub uktub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anti f</td>
<td>katab-ti         ta-ktub-ii-n uktub-ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antuma m</td>
<td>katab-tum-aa     ta-ktub-aa-n uktub-aa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antuma f</td>
<td>katab-tum-aa     ta-ktub-aa-n uktub-aa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa m</td>
<td>katab-tum       ta-ktub-uu-n uktub-uu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antunna f</td>
<td>katab-tu-nna     ta-ktub-na uktub-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa m</td>
<td>katab ya-ktub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiya f</td>
<td>katab-at         ta-ktub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa m</td>
<td>katab-aa         ya-ktub-aa-n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa f</td>
<td>katab-at-aa      ta-ktub-aa-n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hum m</td>
<td>katab-uu         ya-ktub-uu-n</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunna f</td>
<td>katab-na         ya-ktub-na</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pronouns**

Arabic personal pronouns are gender sensitive. Gender distinctions are made in the independent and pronominal suffixes and prefixes, in the nominative, accusative and genitive cases and in the second and the third person singular and plural forms only.

**Relative Pronouns:**

Arabic relative pronouns are also gender sensitive. Gender distinctions are made in the singular, dual and plural forms. The feminine plural relative pronoun has three forms. The following are the masculine and the feminine forms of the relative pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ﺍﻟﺬﻱ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﱵ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﺍﻟﻠﺬﺍﻥ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﻠﺘﺎﻥ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

56
Demonstratives

Arabic makes gender distinction in demonstrative pronouns. Gender distinctions are made in the singular, dual and plural forms. The following are the masculine and the feminine forms of the demonstrative pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﻚ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﻚ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻙ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻙ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻥ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻥ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﻳﻦ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﻳﻦ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺎﻥ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺎﻥ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻟﻮﺍﻗﻊ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻟﻮﺍﻗﻊ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻟﻮﺍﻗﻊ</td>
<td>ﻟﺬﺍﻟﻮﺍﻗﻊ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2 Translation from English

The occurrence of inherent gender classes in Arabic is an instant of obligatory choice in Arabic compared with zero choice in English. Unlike English, where gender choices are somewhat logical, with limited grammatical consequences, Arabic requires a choice with every noun, adjective, verb, relative pronoun, demonstrative and numeral used. The consequences of gender categories are present in almost every sentence in Arabic.

- most nouns have a personal dual gender, e.g.: artist ﻓﻨﺎﻥ, professor ﺃﺳﺘﺎﺫ, cook ﻁﺒﺎﺥ, writer ﻟﺒﺎ, doctor ﻟﺒﻴﺐ, reader ﻋﺎﺏ, engineer ﻣﻬﻨﺪﺱ, player ﻋﺎﺏ, parent ﻤﺍﻟﺪ, teacher ﻣﻌﻠﻢ.
In translating English personal nouns that have no overt marking for gender, the Arabic equivalent to a masculine noun should be masculine and to a feminine noun should be feminine. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lad</td>
<td>ﺔﻟﺪ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lady</td>
<td>ﻧﺎﻤSmartya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>ﺛﺍﺭ ﺍ ﺞ ﺔ ﺎ ﺞ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sister</td>
<td>ﺘﺭ ﺍ ﺞ ﺔ ﺎ ﺞ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sir</td>
<td>ﺁ ﺞ ﺔ ﻪ ﺔ ﺞ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>madam</td>
<td>ﺁ ﺞ ﺔ ﺂ ﺔ ﻪ ﺔ ﺞ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>king</td>
<td>ﻢﻠﻜ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>queen</td>
<td>ﻢﻠﻜﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monk</td>
<td>ﺭﺍﻫ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nun</td>
<td>ﺭﺍﻫ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>ﺭ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>ﺍ ﺞ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In translating English nouns referring to higher animals that have no overt marking for gender, the Arabic equivalent to a masculine noun should be masculine and to a feminine noun. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>duck</td>
<td>ﺹ ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doe</td>
<td>ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bull</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cow</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cock</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hen</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bitch</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lion</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lioness</td>
<td>ﺔ ﺔ ﻢ ﺔ ﻮ ﺔ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The student should observe that for some animals, the Arabic equivalent has the feminine suffix -at, a sex marker is used or a lexical item referring to the female is used.

In translating names of countries, the Arabic equivalent is always feminine, whether they are used as geographical or economic units. In sports, the teams representing countries are masculine in Arabic.

Ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed, a personal substitute is used.

Arabic adjectives are regularly marked for gender.

Personal pronouns furnish the basis for classifying nouns into different substitute groups, i.e., nouns are put into different classes according to the personal pronouns which can be substituted for them. Knowing the membership of a noun in one class or another is useful in grammatical analysis. We have already used the it and they substitute groups to settle the question of number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Pro. substitutes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>brother, uncle, boy</td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sister, aunt, girl</td>
<td>she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>car, tree, room</td>
<td>it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teacher, assistant</td>
<td>he/she</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
All these classes except the tenth have they as a substitute for the plural forms. It must be understood that he, she, and they are meant to include their inflected forms him, her, them. Class membership depends on meaning ans as meaning shifts in the course of events, so does membership in the substitute groups.

(stageberg)

Demonstratives

Relative pronouns

Numerals

2.3 Translation from Arabic

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALITY category in the form of the second person. In translating a text from Arabic into English, gender is observed and not observed in the following cases:

- The English equivalent to most Araqic nouns will not be marked for gender, as most English nouns have a personal dual gender, e.g.: artist, cook, writer; doctor; reader; engineer; player; parent; teacher.

The translation student should use a sex marker like female, woman, man, woman, boy, girl, when a particular activity is largely male or female, with any animate noun when felt relevent , e.g.: female
students;

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>boy friend</td>
<td>girl friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man student</td>
<td>woman student</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man-servant</td>
<td>maid-servant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male relative</td>
<td>female relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nurse male</td>
<td>nurse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>engineer</td>
<td>woman engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he-goat</td>
<td>she-goat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>male-frog</td>
<td>female frog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The English equivalent should be morphologically marked for gender, in a small number of nouns such as ٌ tường ُ duchess; ُ هرُ o heroine; ٌ أمَّ إِمْ رَ تَ أ رُ ُ empress; ُ بُ طِ لْ تَ أ رُ ُ heroine; stewardess; ُ هُ اْتُ لِسَ تُ ُ hostess; ُ شِ مُ بُ تُ ُ maid-servant; ُ وِدِ يْ ثَ رُ ُ usherette; ُ فيْ جَ يْ حُ ُ fiancee; ُ كُ وِ مَ يْ دِ يٌ ُ comedienne.

- When translating names of countries, the use of gender depends on their use in the context in which they occur. As geographical units, they should be treated as inanimate (referred to by the pronoun it). As political or economic units, the names of countries are feminine (referred to by the pronoun she). In sports, the teams representing countries can be referred to as personal collective nouns (referred to by the pronoun they).

- When translating nouns referring to ships and other entities towards which an affectionate attitude is expressed, a personal substitute is used (referred to by the pronoun she).

- Only in the third person singular he (human masculine), she (human feminine), it for objects and animals.

- Gender is not observed in adjectives. The equivalent adjective is always singular. ُ فِ ثَ لْ يِ ُ faithful, ُ أَ رْ يِ ُ green, ُ أَ رْ يِ ُ green, ُ أَ رْ يِ ُ green; ُ بُ لْ نْ يِ ُ blond; ُ أَ مْ رِ كِ يِ ُ American;
Gender is not observed in numeral. There is only one English equivalent for feminine and masculine numerals, e.g., ٥ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ٥ girls; ﺍﺳﺮ ﺍﺳﺮ ﺍﺳﺮ five boys.

Gender is not observed in the relative pronoun. The equivalent to ﺍﻟﺬﻱ ﺍﻟﻠﻮﺍﻕ ﺍﻟﻼﺉﯿﺔ ﺍﻟﻼﺉﯿﺔ ﺍﻟﺬﻳﻦ ﺍﻟﻠﺘﺎﻥ ﺍﻟﻠﺬﺍﻥ ﺍﻟﱵ is one of the following English relative pronouns: who, which, whose, that.

Gender is not observed in verbs at all.

Agreement:
- When the subject refers to persons, there is agreement in gender between the subject and the predicate: ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ 

- When the subject (is a broken plural, broken plurals are feminine). There is subject predicate agreement in gender, ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ 

- When the independent pronoun ﻦ refers to two people, the predicate is in the dual: ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ When it refers to more than two persons, the predicate is plural: ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ ﻦ
John and David are leaving

Collective nouns like urchur, ḥsīd, fād, sīr, shūb, firq, ǧnāt take a singular predicate ﲨﺘﻤﻊ, ﺍﻟﻠﺠﻨﺔ ﻣﺘﺤﻤﺲ. However, some collective nouns may be treated as a singular or a plural noun. Therefore, the modifying adjective is masculine:

broken plurals that refer to ursaļ are followed by either feminine singular or feminine plural adjectives. (Qabawa, p 197)

Adjectives that are the feminine of ursaļ, such as ʿaṣr, ʿaṣrī, ʿaṣrīn take a broken plural ʿaṣrət, ʿaṣrətn, ʿaṣrīn. However, adjectives that have no masculine equivalent ʿaṣr take a feminine sound plural such as ʿaṣrət. Feminine adjectives that have no singular counterpart take a broken plural as ʿaṣrət, ʿaṣrətn, ʿaṣrīn. Qabawa p.
3. **Person Morphology**

Person is the classification of pronouns according to who is speaking, or 'first person', the person spoken to or 'second person', or the person spoken about or 'third person'. The first person in the singular denotes the speaker. In the plural it denotes the speaker plus anybody else, one or more. The second person denotes the person or persons spoken to. The third person denotes those other than the speaker or those spoken to. (Stageberg).

3.1 **English Person Morphology**

English personal pronouns are seven in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of four forms. The paradigms are personal nominative, personal accusative, determiner possessive and nominal possessive as in: (I, me, my, min). Only personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person. see Table ( ).

3.2 **Arabic Person Morphology**

Arabic personal pronouns are 13 in number. Each of them occurs in a paradigm of six forms. The paradigms are two personal independent forms (nominative and accusative), one pronominal prefix form and three pronominal suffix forms (nominative, accusative and genitive). The pronominal suffix is added to verbs in the perfect tense. In the imperfect tense, the pronominal suffix is combined with a pronominal prefix. The independent pronouns, the imperfect prefix and the pronominal suffix have separate forms for first, second and third person. see Table ( ).

3.3 **Translation**

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALITY category in the form of the second person.

Set of third person pronouns.
Set of second person pronouns.
Separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of pronouns. There is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive. The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

When translating English and Arabic pronouns, translation students should note the following: Absence of the nominative independent pronoun from an Arabic sentence does not mean that the Arabic sentence has no subject. The pronominal suffix which is an inseparable part of the verb is actually the subject and the equivalent English sentence should of course contain a subject pronoun. Arabic sentences that contain a nominative independent pronoun have the subject twice. Thus ـکـکـتـبـتـ, ـکـتـبـتـاـنا are the same. In ـکـتـبـتـ we understand that the doer of the action is 'I'. Sometimes, the independent pronoun is used for more emphasis. It is preferable not to use nominative independent pronouns in Arabic verbal sentences.

The translation of the accusative independent pronouns might cause some trouble. The difference between the accusative independent pronouns and the accusative pronominal suffixes is that former is used in position of a direct object

\[
\begin{align*}
    \text{I gave you the book} & \quad \text{ـکـتـبـتـا} \\
    \text{I gave it to you} & \quad \text{ـکـتـبـتـا} \\
    \text{I gave it to her} & \quad \text{ـکـتـبـتـا} \\
    \text{I gave them to you} & \quad \text{ـکـتـبـتـا}
\end{align*}
\]
Accusative independent pronouns are used (in thematic fronting) when the object is placed initially for thematic prominence (when the object is the thematic element and it is placed before the verb) as in ﻥﻌﺒﺪﺍﻳﺎﻙ

The English equivalent should have a thematic fronting (the object pronoun should be placed initially):

**You, we worship.**
4. **Case Morphology**

Case is the relationship of a noun, pronoun, or adjective to other words in a grammatical construction, shown by word order or by prepositions in inflected languages and by change in word form in inflected languages.

4.1 **English Case Morphology**

In the subjective case, nouns and pronouns are used in the functions of subject of the verb and nominative complement. In the accusative case, nouns and pronouns mainly function as objects of verbs and of the preposition.

**Nouns**

English nouns have a two case system: the unmarked common case (boy) and the marked genitive case (boy's book). The function of the common case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase (word order) (subject, object).

English nouns are marked for the category POSSESSION by an inflectional suffix S2. The possessive suffix has the variants /-'s/ and /-'/. The pronunciation of the possessive suffix is identical with that of the plural suffix S1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cat</td>
<td>cat's</td>
<td>-s/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dog</td>
<td>dog's</td>
<td>-z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>boy's</td>
<td>-z/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>judge</td>
<td>judge's</td>
<td>-iz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>church</td>
<td>church's</td>
<td>-iz/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possessive suffix /-s/ is added at the end of the singular noun not ending in s as in John's book.

The apostrophe /-'/ is added after the plural s in plural nouns as, *girls' room*. When the nouns are alike in the singular and the plural, the apostrophe precedes the s in the singular and follows it in the plural, e.g.: *sheep's*
A possessive suffix is used with polysyllabic Greek names *Socrates'*, and with fixed expressions like for *goodness' sake*. Some singular nouns ending in the sound of *s* or *z*, take the *s*; others do not; as *James's bag, Misses's department, Moses' book, Jesus' sake*.

An 'of-structure' is used as a variant of the */-'s/* morpheme. The possessive suffix is used with animate nouns and the 'of-structure' is used with inanimate nouns; e.g.: *the cat's tail but the branch of the tree*.

**Pronouns**

English pronouns have only two cases: common (*somebody*) and genitive (*somebody's*). But six pronouns represent a three case system: nominative, accusative and genitive. The nominative pronouns are those used in the functions of subject of the verb and of nominative complement. The pronouns in the accusative case are those which function mainly as objects of the verb and of the preposition. Pronominal pronouns occur before nouns and substitutional possessive occur as substitutes for nouns.

- **Nominative case**: *I, we, you, he, she, it, they, who, one, ones, other, others*
- **Accusative case**: *me, us, you, him, her, it, them, who, whom, One, ones, other, others.*
- **Genitive case (pronominal possessive)**: *my, our, your, his, her, its, their, whose, ones, ones', other's, others'.
- **Genitive case (substitutional possessive)**: *mine, ours, yours, his, hers, its, theirs.*

**4.2 Arabic Case Morphology**

Arabic nouns have a three case system: marked nominative, marked accusative and marked genitive. The function of the nominative case, the accusative case and the genitive case can be seen in the syntactic relations of the noun phrase and in case endings (case markers). Singular, dual, sound masculine plural, sound feminine plural and broken plural forms take special case endings. Those case endings are summarized in the table ( ) below.
Pronouns

Personal independent pronouns, pronominal suffixes and relative pronouns represent a three case system: nominative, accusative and genitive. See Table ( ).

Relative and Demonstrative Pronouns

Relative and demonstrative pronouns show case distinctions only in the dual. The singular and plural forms are uninflected. The following are the nominative, accusative and genitive forms:

- Nominative: 
  - Set of third person pronouns.
  - Set of second person pronouns.

Separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of pronouns. There is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive.

The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to
pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

- It must be remembered that the verbal inflectional suffix /-z/, the noun plural inflectional suffix /-z/ and the noun possessive inflectional suffix /-z/ are the same. These three homophonous /-z/s are allomorphs of three different morphemes. To be allomorphs of the same morpheme, each allomorph must have the same meaning. (Stageberg). In the spoken language we cannot always be sure which morpheme we are hearing, because the possessive and the plural have identical forms/-s/, /-z/, and /-iz/ except in the case of irregular plurals. If you were to here /the boy's ball/, it could mean the boy's ball or the boys' ball.

- When’s is used after characters, it merely denotes plurality and not possession, e.g.: the x's and the z's; the 1980's, UN’s. ‘s is also a contraction of is as in Mary’s, i.e. e., Mary is. (Covell).

- In an Arabic translation, the student should pay attention to the case endings of nouns especially dual and sound plural nouns because singular, sound feminine plurals and broken plurals are marked for case by short vowels which are often omitted in a written text. Dual nouns take the case ending /-aa/ or /-aan/ in the nominative case; /-ayn/ or /-ay/ in the accusative and genitive cases. Sound masculine plurals take the case ending /-uun/ or /-uu/ in the nominative case; /-iin/ or /-ii/ in the accusative and genitive cases.

- In translating English genitive structures into Arabic, the Arabic equivalent is a noun followed by an apposited noun, whether the possessive suffix or the of-structure is used.

  - The teacher's book.
  - Both teacher's book
  - The teachers' book
  - The branch of the tree
The boy's hands

The school's teachers

I saw the school's teachers

When the noun is dual or plural, the case endings /-aa/, /-ay/, /-uu/ and /-ii/ should be used. If the apposited noun is dual or a sound masculine plural, the case endings /-ayn/ and /iin/ should be used.

- in translating the English double genitives, the preposition li should be used before the apposited noun:
  - a friend of my sister's
  - a friend of mine
  - some books of John's

- In translating English possessives that are followed by a superlative or ordinal, the Arabic equivalent contain the preposition fii or li, e.g.:
  - The world's largest city.
  - Africa's first railway.
  - John's first novel

Leech

- Sometimes, the noun that follows the possessive is omitted from the English sentence. In the Arabic translation, the omitted noun should be restored. A noun that refers to someone's house as بيت or place of work as دكان can be used, e.g.:

  - Your grades are better than John's.
  - I went to the doctor's.
  - I went to my uncle's.
When the possessive is much shorter than the following phrase, the head noun of that phrase should be used as the Arabic head noun, the possessive noun should be the apposited noun followed by the rest of the phrase:

*The town's increasing problems of crime and violence.*

The Arabic equivalent for the possessive determiner and the possessive pronoun is the same, e.g.:

*This is my book.*

*This book is mine.*

*This one is mine.*

In English, own is added before a possessive determiner to give it emphasis. The Arabic equivalent is the same as in 10:

*She always washes her own clothes.*

When the English possessive form refers back to the subject, no noun is used after the possessive determiner. In Arabic a noun should be used after the possessive determiner, as it is a clitic pronoun that cannot stand alone:

*I brought my own book, but he forgot his.*

When a person is the subject, a possessive determiner is used to refer to his, or her parts of the body, but when it is the object and is followed by the part of the body, the is used. The Arabic equivalent does not use al- in the second case; it uses a possessive determiner.
instead, e.g.:

He hurt his arm.  

He hit the boy on the head.

- In Arabic, the genitive is expressed by a noun followed by an apposited noun. Arabic makes no distinction between animate and inanimate apposited nouns. There are two English equivalents this structure: an -'s genitive and an of-genitive. The possessive suffix -'s should be used with animate nouns and the 'of-structure' with inanimate nouns; e.g.:

the cat's tail

the branch of the tree.
5. Tense and Aspect

Tense is the inflection on a verb with reference to the time of the utterance. Tense is the correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect is a term used to describe the state of verb action as beginning, in progress, completed, etc. Since the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect, time and aspect will be combined. (Quirk)

5.1 English Tense and Aspect

There are two tenses in English: past and present. There is no obvious future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future is denoted by means of modal auxiliaries as in (a), semi auxiliaries as in (), by simple present forms as in (b) or progressive forms as in (c) and (d):

a. I will go to school. (Modal auxiliary)
b. He leaves for London tomorrow. (Simple present)
c. It is going to rain.
d. The train is leaving tonight.

English has the following aspects: progressive, and perfective. Aspect is shown by the use of suffixes {-ing} and {-ed} and/or auxiliary words be and have as in:

a. are running
b. has played.

English tense and aspect are summarized below.

The Present

In the Simple Present, only the third person singular is marked for tense by the suffix - {S3}, e.g.: I play, we play, you play, they play, he plays, she plays, and it plays. The morpheme {-S3} has the same allomorphs in the same distribution as the plural suffix {-S1} and possessive suffix - {S2} of the noun: /-s/, /-z/, /-iz/, as in sleeps, brushes, changes, raises.

The majority of modal auxiliaries are said to have tense. Can, may, shall, will, must are used in the present tense. They precede the main verb
and give it special shades of meaning like futurity, volition, possibility, probability, permission, and necessity. The auxiliaries can, may, shall, will, and must are not inflected for tense, e.g.: I can, we can; you can; they can; he can, she can, it can.

The three quasi auxiliaries be, do, have often function as auxiliaries. The present form of Have and do are only inflected for third person singular nouns, and words for which the third person singular pronouns will substitute and word groups. I have, we have, you have, he has, she has, it has; I do, we do, you do, he does, she does, it does. Be has three suppletive forms in the present tense am, is, are as follows: I am, we are, you are, he is, she is, it is.

Quasi auxiliaries may precede the verb stem, the present participle, and the past participle, e.g.: I do insist; They are playing; He has eaten.

The quasi auxiliary do is used in questions, negative sentences, and emphatic affirmations.

Do you know the answer?
She didn't do it.
I did see him.

The Past

The Simple Past form takes on two forms: regular and irregular. The regular form ends with the suffix {-ed} as in played, walked, closed. The past tense suffix -ed is pronounced [t] after a voiceless consonant as in stopped, possessed, marked; it is pronounced [d] after a voiced consonant as in believed, closed, played, and it is pronounced [id] after another /t/, /d/ as in started, landed. The irregular past tense takes on numerous forms: some verbs remain the same, some form their past by a suppletive form, some replace their entire stem by a wholly different stem as in go, went, e.g., went, ran, taught, wrote, smelt, took, made, said, left, sent, spoke, met, drew, began, set. The past tense form of the verb is not inflected (marked) for the first, second or third person nouns or pronouns.

The past tense form of the modal auxiliaries can, may, shall, will, must are could, might, should, would, ought. Must and ought (to) do not have parallel forms, like the others. To express the past tense of must, in the the sense of necessity, one says had to, e.g.:
You ought to take the medicine.
You ought to /should have taken the medicine.

The past tense form of the quasi auxiliaries be, do and have are: had; was, were; did. These past forms may precede the verb stem, the present participle, and the past participle. The quasi auxiliary do is used in questions, negative sentences, and emphatic affirmations.

Did you know the answer?
She didn't do it.
I did see him.

These past tense forms are not marked in accordance with the subject.

**The Progressive**

The present and past progressive consist of be + present participle the {-ing} form. Seven suppletive forms of be -am, is, are, was, were, be, been - are used as the first member of the verb phrases i.e. only the first member of the verbal phrase is inflected in accordance with the subject. The second member being does not change. The present participle suffix {-ing} does not change as well. When auxiliaries are employed in groups of two or three, the following obligatory sequence is followed: be + present participle.

**The perfective**

The past and the present perfect consist of have + past participle. The past participle is the {-ed} form of the verb. Three forms of have - have, has, had- serve as the first member of the verb phrase. The first member has changes in accordance with the subject; the second member which consists of the past participle of the main verb does not. When auxiliaries are used in groups of two or three, the following obligatory sequence is followed: have + past participle.

The past participle form of the verb may be regular or irregular. The regular past participle ends with the suffix {-ed}, e.g.: played, passed. The pronunciation and distribution of the allomorphs of the suffix {-ed} are the same as those for the past tense suffix. The irregular past participle, like irregular past tense - has numerous forms: some verbs remain the same, some form their past participle by a suppletive form, some replace their
entire stem by a wholly different stem as in go, went, e.g., gone, run, taught, written, smelt, taken, made, said, left, sent, spoken, met, drawn, begun, set. Those most frequently occurring end in the same three sounds mentioned above, but here they are allomorphs of \{-d2\}. The past participle is used with have, has, had, having to form verbal phrases.

**The Perfect Progressive**
The past and the present perfect progressive consist of have + been + present participle. When auxiliaries are employed in groups of three, an obligatory sequence is followed: have + be + present participle.

### 5.2 Arabic Tense and Aspect

There are two tenses in Arabic: past and present. There is no future tense corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future time is rendered by means of the future particles (ـﺳ ﺻ) and (ﺳﻮﻑ ﺻ). 

Arabic has two aspects: the perfect and the imperfect. The perfect refers to past time (or completed action), and the imperfect refers to present or non-past time. In Arabic, aspect-tense is shown by the addition of an aspect-tense prefix to the base form of the verb. The base form of the verb is the past third person singular masculine form used with huwa. To convert a verb into the active imperfect, an imperfect tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person masculine singular base form. This imperfect tense-aspect prefix has several variants. The distribution of the tense-aspect prefix and its variants?a-, na-, ta-, ya- are shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfect</th>
<th>imperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?naa</td>
<td>katab-tu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nahnu</td>
<td>katab-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anta</td>
<td>katab-ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anti</td>
<td>katab-ti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa</td>
<td>katab-tu-m-aa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antum</td>
<td>katab-tu-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antunna</td>
<td>katab-tu-nna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa</td>
<td>katab</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
hiya  katab-at    ta-ktub
humaa  katab-aa    ya-ktub-aa-n
humaa  katab-at-aa ta-ktub-aa-n
hum    katab-uu    ya-ktub-uu-n
hunna  katab-na    ya-ktub-na

In the passive, a passive tense-aspect prefix is added to the third person masculine singular base form. This passive imperfect tense-aspect prefix has several variants. The distribution of the tense-aspect prefix and its variants ?a-, na-, ta-, ya- are shown in the table below.

The perfect takes on two forms: regular and irregular depending on the composition of the base form (root). The regular form ends with the pronominal suffixes -tu, -na, -ta, -ti, -tu-maa, -tu-m, -tu-nna, -aa, -uu, -na without any internal changes in the base form. Regular verbs contain no long vowels aa or uu or ii. The irregular past tense takes on numerous forms: some verbs form their past by a suppletive form. The past tense form of the verb is not inflected (unmarked) for the first, second or third person nouns or pronouns.

- Fully inflected verbs are classified into sound, doubled (verbs containing a glottal stop) and verbs with initial, medial or final glottal stop). When the imperfect tense prefix is added to a triliteral verb, the following changes in the form of the base form take place depending on the composition of the base form:

  - A sound perfect verb, no change take place in the radicals of the base form, e.g.: shariba: yashrab, yashrabaaan
  - A doubled verb, no changes take place in the radicals in the imperfect, but the geminated third radical is substituted by two separate consonants in the first and second person, and the base form remains the same in the third person singular.
- Initial w. it is deleted, e.g.: wa9ada: ya-9id, ya-9idna, ya-9idaan.

- Initial y. Base form does not undergo any change.

- Medial aa, aa changes into uu or ii, e.g.: qaala: ya-quul, ta-quulaan, ta-quuluun; 9aasha: na-9iishu, ta-9iishuuna.

- Final aa, it changes to uu or ii, e.g.: mashaa: ya-mshii, ta-mshii, ?a-mshii, ta-mshiy-aan, yamshiyaan; ranaa: ya-rnuu, ?a-rnuu, ya-rnuuun, ta-rnuw-aan, ya-rnuw-aan.

- Initial w and final y, w is deleted, but y is retained in the imperfect, e.g.: waqaa, ya-qii, naqii, taqii, ya-qiy-aan, ta-qiy-aan.

- Initial w and a final aa, w is retained and aa changes into ii, e.g.: waasaa, yu-wasii, tuwaasii, nuwaasii, yu-waasiy-aan, tuwaasiyaan.

- The negative verb laysa and verbs like نعَم ﺟﻌﻞ ﺑﺘﺲ ﺪﺷﺎ have no imperfect form.

- Defective verbs ﺑﻌﻢ ﺟﻌﻞ ﺟﺤﺪﺓ ﺑﺤﺬﺍ such as yaswaa ﺑﻌﻢ ﺑﺤﺬﺍ have only an imperfect form. It has no perfect form.

5.3 Translation from English

English has too many subclasses of verbs weak and strong. Weak verbs have only four inflected forms and strong verbs have five.

The Arabic verb system is the most complex of the morphologically distinct classes. Verbs are inflected for TENSE, PERSON, GENDER and NUMBER.

Present

The simple present tense is used to express general time
Present Progressive

The progressive form is used for a single temporary event that has a beginning and an end. It suggests that an event began and is continuing, but it does not necessarily include the end of the action.

- Whether the present progressive tense indicates
- When the present progressive tense signal future time (when it is accompanied by a future time expression), the Arabic equivalent is sa+ the imperfect of the verb:
  
  He is leaving for London tomorrow.

  ﻓِﺪﺍﹰ ﻰﻠﻨﺪﻥ ﻣﺴﻴﻐﺎﺩﺭ

  The exhibition is starting next week.

  ﻲﻠـﻤﺎ ﻱﺳﺒﻮﻉ ﺑـﺍﳌﻌﺮﺽ ﺑـﻴﺴﺪﺍ

  - When the present progressive tense indicates that the future action is a plan made in the present, with the past possibly included, the Arabic equivalent consists of sa + the imperfect of the verb, especially when verbs that show the intention of the subject or that can indicate the result of planning by some agent:
    
    I am giving a speech tomorrow.

    ﺑـﻛﻠﻤـﺔ ﺑـﻱـﻠﻘﻰ ﺑـ发病率

Past progressive

The past progressive form emphasizes the duration of one past event that has a possible beginning and ending:

What were you reading last week?

��ـﺗـﺖ ﺑـﺗﻘﺮﺍ ﻱـﳌﺎﺯﺍ

When I entered the room, the speaker was already giving his speech.

ﻙـﺎﻥ ﻷـﻟﻐﺮﻓـﺔ ﺑـﻐـﻼـﺽ ﺑـﻛﻠـﻤـﺔ ﻣـﻴـﺪـﻨـﺒـﺍ
The progressive may express duration of an event at one point in the past:

*Last Tuesday, I was preparing for the party.*

The progressive is used for a past action in progress is suddenly or unexpectedly interrupted by another past action:

*I was sitting in the garden, when Mary passed by.*

*While I was driving my car, I saw John in the street.*

In sentences referring to two past acts that are in progress simultaneously, the past progressive form may occur with both of the actions in progress with only one, or with neither:

*He was reading while Mary was cooking dinner.*

*He read while Mary cooked the dinner.*

*He was reading while Mary cooked the dinner.*

*He read while Mary was cooking the dinner.*

**Future**

Frank pp 75-76

- When will means promise, the Arabic equivalent is

*I will come next month.*
- when will means intention
  I will solve all the problems myself.

- When will expresses willingness
  I will be happy to take the children to the park.

- will expresses volition = want to:
  If you will help me I will help you.

- when will means plans, arrangements, and schedules;
  The game will start at 7.

- when will expresses prediction:
  The weather will always be hot there.

- when will expresses instruction
  You will take the tablets first and then you will use the shots.

- When will expresses inclination, tendency (a general statement based on past observation is made about the future).
  *Accidents will happen in the best regulated families.*

- when will expresses obstinacy, insistence, willfulness (with emphasis on the word will):
  *Students will be students.*
when will expresses supposition:

You will see by reading this book that exercising is good for your health.

shall is used in request in the sense do you want me to:

Shall I do the dishes?

Shall is used in legal or commercial usage with the third person -for regulations, specifications, and requirements:

A committee shall be responsible for collecting money for the handicapped.

The tour shall meet all specifications set forth in the brochure.

Students shall be permitted to register for the new course during pre-registration period.

Shall is used in moral injunctions with the second person-an archaic usage found in the Bible where shall was often used for futurity for all three persons:

*Thou shall honor thy father and thy mother.

*Thou shall not kill.

Shall is used in literary usage with third person:

Who shall decide when the members of the committee
Future progressive

- When the future tense expresses duration of a single future event as in (a), indicates duration at some point as in (b), the Arabic equivalent consists of sa + the imperfect of the verb. When See and hear used in future progressive form have special meaning as in (c), the form is still the same, but the lexical meaning of the verb changes.

(a)  *He will be working on the experiment for three months.*

*He will be having health problems for a very long time.*

(b)  *She will be visiting her mother next Thursday.*

*She will be studying for her comprehensive exam the whole summer.*

(c)  *I'll be seeing you. (I expect to meet you)*

*You'll be hearing from us (you will get a communication from us)*

Present Perfect

Structurally, the perfect signifies that a form of have accompanies a verb as an auxiliary. Semantically, each of the three perfect tenses denotes time completed in relation to a particular point. The Present Perfect tense denotes time completed in relation to the present; the past perfect tense
denotes time completed in relation to the past; and the future perfect tense
denotes time completed in relation to the future.

In Arabic, a temporal reference point in the past, or the future, is
established by the Perfect of kaana + the particle ﻣﺎ(412,309),(468,342), may be
added to the perfect of the verb as in (1), the perfect of kaana may be added
to the future ﺑا(411,358),(462,390) yaktub as in (2), The future ﺑا(411,358),(462,390) yakkunu + qad + the perfect
of the verb as in (3). To establish a temporal reference point in the future, ﺑا(411,358),(462,390) yakunu + qad with the perfect of the verb
(1) kaana qad katab
(2) kaana sa yaktub
(3) sa yakunuqad katab

In English, the present perfect denotes actual-past-to-present time.
An actual event starts in the past and continues up to the present. Several
expressions of time mark the past-to-present event like since, for, so far, up
to now, until now, up to the present, all his life, in his whole life, e.g.:

I have worked as a teacher for five years.

She has lived in London since 1965.

Up to now, she has written three books the thief.

I have visited ten countries so far.

In Arabic, the past-to-present time is denoted by the perfect of the verb and
the particle ﻣﺎ(412,309),(468,342). However, when a negative present perfect verb is used,
the particles and ﻣﺎ(412,309),(468,342) are no longer used; the imperfect of the verb and the
negative particle gi are used instead, e.g.:

I have not seen her yet.
He has not found a new job since he quit his job at our company.

In questions, the Arabic equivalent to the English present perfect tense is the perfect of the verb, e.g.:

*Have you met her?*

*What have you brought with you?*

In English adverbial or adjectival clauses in which the present perfect tense is used instead of the present tense used for the future, The Arabic equivalent to the English present perfect may be the perfect or the imperfect of the verb, e.g.:

*if he has finished (finishes) his homework, he will go to the game.*

*He will not go to the game, until he has finished (finishes) his homework.*

**Present Perfect Progressive**

The progressive form of the present perfect tense stresses the duration of a single past-to-present action that has a beginning and an end. It stresses the middle of an event rather than its beginning and end. It is more closely related to the present than nonprogressive forms. The Arabic equivalent is the imperfect of the verb. When the subject is a pronoun, the Arabic verb should be preceded by the particle *jāʿ* pronoun; if the subject is a noun, *jāʿ* as not used, e.g.:

*The committee has been discussing the problem for more than*
two hours.

They have been discussing the problem for more than two hours.

She has been living in London since 1965.

Recently we have been studying together almost everyday.

**Past Perfect**

- In English, the past perfect or the Simple Past may be used to show that one action in the past happened before another action in the past. In Arabic, when one action takes place before another, the first one is in the perfect and the second may consists of the infinitive particle جَا- imperf. as in (a), جَا+ the perfect as in (b), or the perfect as in (c).

Thus two forms in English (the past perfect and the past simple) equate with one form in Arabic (the perfect) and three forms in Arabic equate with one form in English (past tense). The Arabic perfect is used for both, the past perfect and the past simple as in:

(a) Mary had finished (1) sewing her dress before she went (2) to the party.

Mary finished (1) sewing her dress before she went (1) to the party.

(b) Mary went (2) to the party after she had finished (1) sewing the dress.

Mary went (2) to the party after she finished (1) the dress.
(c) When Mary had finished (1) the dress, she went (2) to the party.

When Mary finished (1) the dress, she went (2) to the party.

- In English, the past perfect is also used for unreal past states and actions (in the if-clause of the would-have condition). In Arabic unreal past states and actions are expressed by the unreal conditional particle ﻟﻮ and the perfect tense in both the conditional clause and the main clause. The perfect verb in the main clause is preceded by laam, which is a correlative of law. Once again, two forms in English (the past perfect and the future perfect) are equated with one form in Arabic (the perfect only + the lam). The Arabic equivalent to the English conditional conjunction if is the ﻟﻮ.

(a) If I had been a poet, I would have written a lot of poems.

(ب) If the weather had been warmer, I would have gone to Alaska.

**Past Perfect Progressive**

Frank p. 84.

The past perfect progressive emphasizes the duration of one past event taking place before another past event. The past perfect progressive form of the verb phrase is that something happened for a period of time before the past time you are thinking of.

*He had been waiting at the airport for three hours before she could get on another flight.*

*He had been studying very hard for; his mother told him to take a break.*
The past progressive form, like the past progressive form, may show a past event in progress before it is interrupted by another past event. The past perfect progressive, however, places greater emphasis on the fact that one event is completed before the other.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{He had been getting ready to go home before he had a phone call.} \\
\text{We had just been waiting for him when he suddenly entered the room.}
\end{align*}
\]

**Future perfect**

Frank pp. 85-86.

The future perfect tense is the future-before-future time. This tense emphasizes the fact that one future time is completed before another future time, i.e. one future time is past in relation to another future time. The event marked by the future perfect tense actually begins in the past and ends in the future; we may then speak of past-to-future time.

The future perfect tense is usually accompanied by the, a time expression which signals at, by, or before which time a future event will be completed.

- When the future end point is a time at which (time expression on, at, when), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{In January, She will have graduated for five years.} \\
\text{At the end of this month, I will have been working at the university for ten years.} \\
\text{When I finish reading this book, I will have read five books in a}
\end{align*}
\]
When the future end point is a time by which (time expression with by), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

*I leave work late tonight. By the time I get home my children will have gone to bed.*

*By the end of the semester, I will have given my students five exams.*

When the future end point is a time before which (time expression with before), the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

*The spectators will have gone home before the end of the game.*

*Before his term is over, he will have made many improvements at work.*

*They will have helped many people before their money runs out.*

Sometimes the future perfect tense differs from the future tense in that it marks an event as having already begun:

*In the near future, a cure for AIDS will have been discovered.*
In the near future, a cure for AIDS will be discovered.

- if the word already is used for future time, the future perfect tense is often required, the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

  When you come back from vacation, I will have already finished writing my book.

 ُيُقَمَّط يُكَفُّ يُقَمَّط يُكَفُّ يُقَمَّط

  I will already have gone to bed by the time you get home.

- In some sentences with already, the future tense may alternate with the present perfect tense, the Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of the verb:

  Before the police find the murderer, he will have already left the country.

 ُيُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط

**Future Perfect Progressive**

It stresses the duration of a single event in the future that takes place before another future. The Arabic equivalent is sa + yakuunu + qad + the perfect of a verb expressing time + infinitive noun of the main verb:

  On July 9, we will have been studying at the university for three years.

 ُيُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط يُقَمَّط

  I will have been traveling for two months before I get to New
Zealand.

I will have been watching the movie for two hours before I go to bed.

**Auxiliary Verbs**

Frank pp. 95-107.

Auxiliaries add to the verb a special semantic component such as ability, obligation and possibility. Some of the modal auxiliaries express the same kinds of semantic coloring as verbs in the subjunctive mood.

- can and be able to may indicate physical ability as in (a), a learned ability, i.e., knowing how to do something as in (b), having the power to do something as in (c):
  
  (a) I can run for five miles.
  
  (b) He can swim.
  
  (c) I can come to the party tomorrow.

- May is used for permission. Can be also used for permission. The past form of may and can are also used in requests:

  May I borrow your book?
  
  Can I borrow your book?

  May and can are used in the sense of be permitted:

  Anyone may (or can) donate money.

  May indicates a possible chance, can connotes greater certainty.

  may have and could have are used for past possibility:

  He could /may/ might have had an accident.
  
  They could (might) have missed the bus.
  
  Can (could, might) she still be at the office?
May expresses the greatest possibility; should suggests a reasonable degree of probability; must denotes the greatest degree of probability.

Present time:
She left the office an hour ago.
She may (might) possibly be at home by now (uncertainty).
She should be at home by now (expectation).
She must certainly be at home by now (certainty).

Past time:
She left the office an hour ago.
She may possibly have gotten home by now.
She should have gotten home by now.
He must certainly have gotten home by now.

Future time:
She is leaving her office now.
She may (might) get home in half an hour.
She should get home in half an hour.

Sentences with the modal auxiliaries may, should, must in the second and third persons may be the equivalent of imperative sentences that range from mild suggestions to stern commands:
You may leave the door open.
You might n in your paper a day later.
All employees should come to the meeting today.
You must drink your milk now.

Might and could also indicate only past time
She says that Mary may (can) go to the party.
She said Mary could go to the party.

Should have and ought to have imply that the action was not performed:
Mary should have gone to work yesterday.

In a question with the perfect form, the action has in fact been performed:
Should Mary have gone to work yesterday?
• **had better** denotes advisability; 
  
  *You had better find another job if you want to earn more money.*

• **Must** and **have to** suggest a more urgent course of action which does not allow for the possibility of rejection: 
  
  *You must (have to) go to work on time.*

  *should/ought to* make a moderate recommendation, whereas *must/have to* make a strong recommendation: 

  (a) **This is an excellent novel. You should/ought to read it.**
  
  (b) **This is an excellent book you must/have to read it.**

  Must is generally felt as stronger than have to. Its use ranges from a compulsion forced on us by life itself (a) to a constraint imposed on us by others in authority (b), to a constraint placed on us by ourselves (c): 

  (a) **We must keep warm in cold weather.**
  
  (b) **You must obey the law.**
  
  (c) **I must the house every weekend.**

• The past tense of must (had to) is used in the sequence of tenses:  
  
  *She tells me I must visit her.* 
  
  *She told me I had to visit her.*

• The negative of must has a different meaning from the negative of had to. **Must not** denotes that it is strongly recommended not to take a certain course of action; do not have to denotes that it is not necessary to take a certain course of action:  

  *must not* often has the effect of prohibition, especially when used with you;  
  
  *You must not swim in swamps.*

• **need to, have got to**, express necessity:  

  *I have got to finish this before I go to bed.*

• **should and would** express obligation:  

  *you should do what your*
5.4   Translation from Arabic

Present

The simple present tense is usually used to express general time. It can include the past, present and the future. The timeless present is useful in general statements such as eternal truths, generalizations about customs of single individuals:

General truths:
*the earth revolves around the earth.
*The sun rises in the east and sets in the west.
*children learn faster when their needs and interests are provided for.

Customs:
Includes the habitual actions of nations, communities, groups, individuals. With or without an expression expressing frequency:
*The English frequently drinks tea in the afternoon.
*I always take my umbrella with me when it rains.
*Englishmen drink tea in the afternoon.
*I take my umbrella with me when it rains.

The present simple is also used to express present time with many non-action verbs, especially those expressing state or condition. Linking verbs: be, seem, and appear, look:
*she seems to be tired today.
*he's feeling the surface of the earth.

Verbs of perception like feel, taste, and smell, used intransitively:
*the medicine tastes bitter.
*he's feeling the surface of the table

See, hear used transitively:
*I hear music coming from the other room, but I am listening to the radio.
Verbs indicating a mental state or condition such as; agree, believe, consider, guess, hesitate, imagine, know, prefer, realize, remember, suppose, trust, want, wish. Many of these verbs are followed by noun clauses or by verbal phrases.

Verbs expressing an emotional state such as admire, appreciate, and care, like, love, regret, and trust:
*we love each other very much.
*he admires his father more than he will admit.
*I appreciate a good meal.

Other non-action verbs like belong, contain, depend, equal, have, hold, indicate, mean, need, owe, require, resemble, tend.

With verbs of saying and telling:
*he says he cannot come tonight.
*we suggest that you take warm clothes with you.

To express future time with verbs like come, go, arrive, and depart.

The English progressive mostly occurs with verbs that denote limited duration (eat, play, study, work, meet). However, it can also occur with verbs that express some stage in a progression-the beginning, end or continuation of an action:
The game is beginning now.
The play is getting more and more boring.

A few verbs may occur in either the progressive or the simple form of the present tense, depending on the kind of emphasis. If the emphasis is on the university of one event, the progressive is used:
He is planning to go to start his own business.
What are you studying? I am studying engineering.
Where are you working? I am working at King Saud University.

If the emphasis is on the general idea denoted by the verb, the simple present is used:
He plans to go to London.
He studies engineering.
I work at King Saud University.

Sometimes the progressive is used in a general statement to add a feeling of present action in progress:
*They enjoy listening to good music while they are eating their dinner.*
*Millions of people are watching (vs. watch) television every night.*

For the very immediate future, be about to, or be on the point of is used:

Past
6 Mood

Mood is a meaning signaled by a grammatical verb form that expresses the subject's attitude or intent. Mood relates the verbal action to such conditions as certainty, obligation, necessity, and possibility. There are four mood categories: indicative, imperative, the subjunctive and the optative. The expression of future is closely bound up with mood (Quirk). Futurity, modality and aspect are closely related.

6.1 English Mood

English has the following mood categories:

Indicative

English verbs are marked for the indicative mood in the present third person singular only by the suffix -s. The past tense form is not marked for the indicative, e.g.: I go, we go, you go, they go, he goes, she goes, it goes; I went, we went, you went, they went, he went, she went, it went.

Imperative

English verbs are not inflectionally marked for the imperative. The imperative is the uninflected verb form used with the second person you, e.g.: Go away!
Open the window.

Subjunctive

When verbs are in the subjunctive mood, 0 suffix is added to the verb in the third person singular, or the plural form is used, i.e. the uninflected base form is used instead of the third person singular -s form. The subjunctive is used in that-clauses after some verbs and adjectives such as insist, demand, require, move, ask, propose, and suggest, essential, necessary. This means that there is no agreement between the subject and the finite verb in the third person singular and the present and the past tense forms are indistinguishable (Quirk, pp. 51-52).

It is necessary that every employee inform himself of these rules.
It is necessary that every employee should inform himself of these rules.
I suggested that he go on a bus tour.
The subjunctive is used in a few formal idioms expressing a strong wish. Here, the subjunctive consists of the base form of the verb:

- God save the king.
- Heaven forbid that he should fail his exams.
- So be it then!

The subjunctive is used when an unreal meaning is expressed. It is used in conditional and subordinate clauses after optative verbs like wish. It occurs as the first and the third person singular past of the verb be:

- I wish I were in Switzerland.
- If I was/were to do something, I would stop the war immediately.
- She spoke to me as if she were my boss.
- She walks as if she were a queen.

### 6.2 Arabic Mood

Arabic has five moods: imperative, indicative, the subjunctive, jussive and energetic.

#### Imperative

The imperative is formed by adding the prefix ?u- or its variant ?i- to the base form of the perfect verb together with an internal change in the vowel. The imperative has five forms (the imperative is marked for number and gender): masculine singular (?u-kttub, ?i-shrab), feminine singular (?u-ktubii, ?i-shrabii), dual (?u-ktubaa, ?i-shrabaa), masculine plural (?u-ktubuu, ?i-shrabuu), feminine plural (?u-ktubna, ?i-shrabna).

The initial ?u- of ?i- is elided in

Some verbs occur only in the imperfect and cannot form the imperative such as: 

Some occur only in the imperfect and they cannot form the imperative such as 

Some verbs occur only in the imperative. They have no perfect or perfect form, e.g.: 

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An indeclinable form is also used as an imperative, such as: ﺛﺎﺭٍ ﺧَﺎﺹَاءٍ

**Imperfect Indicative**

Imperfect verbs are marked for the indicative mood by the suffix -u. The suffix -u has two variants: -ni, -na and 0. The distribution of the indicative mood suffix and its variants is as follows: The suffix -u is added to the base form of the verb to convert it to the indicative mood as in ?ana ?adrus-u, nahnu nadrus-u, ?anta tadrus-u, huwa yadrus-u, hiya tadrus-u.
The suffix -ni is added in the dual as in ?antmaa and humaa tadrus-aa-ni, humaa yadrus-aa-ni; -na is added to the second person singular feminine ?anti tadrus-ii-na, the second and third person masculine plural as in ?antum tadrusuu-na and hum yadrusuu-na; 0 suffix is added to the verb in the second and third feminine plural as in ?antunna tadrus-na, hunna yadrus-na. (See table)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Base Form</th>
<th>Imperfect Indicative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?ana</td>
<td>?adrus-u</td>
<td>?adrus-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anta</td>
<td>tadrus-u</td>
<td>tadrus-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa</td>
<td>yadrus-u</td>
<td>yadrus-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiya</td>
<td>tadrus-u</td>
<td>tadrus-u</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nahnu</td>
<td>nadrus-u</td>
<td>nadrus-u</td>
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<td>tadrus-ii-na</td>
<td>tadrus-ii-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antum</td>
<td>tadrus-uu-na</td>
<td>tadrus-uu-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hum</td>
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<td>tadrus-aa-ni</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>?antunna</td>
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<td>tadrus-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunna</td>
<td>yadrus-na</td>
<td>yadrus-na</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Subjunctive**

Imperfect verbs take the suffix -a (fatha) instead of the indicative -u when preceded by the particles j ya°daj a in such a case damma is substituted by fatha; and -ni and -na are deleted, e.g.:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Jussive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?ana  ?adrus-u</td>
<td>lan  ?adrus-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anta tadrus-u</td>
<td>lan  ?adrus-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa yadrus-u</td>
<td>lan  ?adrus-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiya tadrus-u</td>
<td>lan  ?adrus-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nahnu nadrus-u</td>
<td>lan  ?adrus-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anti tadrus-ii-na</td>
<td>lan tadrusii-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antum tadrus-uu-na</td>
<td>lan tadrusaa-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hum yadrus-uu-na</td>
<td>lan tadrusaa-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa tadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lan tadrusuu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa yadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lan tadrusuu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa tadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lan tadrusuu-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>lan tadrus-na</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunna yadrus-na</td>
<td>lan tadrus-na</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Jussive**

The indicative suffixes -u (damma), -ni, and -na are deleted, when the Imperfect verb is preceded by the particles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>indicative</th>
<th>jussive</th>
<th>jussive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?anta tadrus-u</td>
<td>lam  ?adrus-</td>
<td>lam tashudd / tashdud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa yadrus-u</td>
<td>lam  ?adrus-</td>
<td>lam yashudd / yashdud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiya tadrus-u</td>
<td>lam  ?adrus-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nahnu nadrus-u</td>
<td>lam  ?adrus-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anti tadrus-ii-na</td>
<td>lam tadrusii-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antum tadrus-uu-na</td>
<td>lam tadrusaa-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>hum yadrus-uu-na</td>
<td>lam tadrusaa-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa tadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lam tadrusuu-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa yadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lam tadrusuu-</td>
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<tr>
<td>humaa tadrus-aa-ni</td>
<td>lam tadrusuu-</td>
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<tr>
<td>?antunna tadrus-na</td>
<td>lam tadrus-na</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Energetic

The energetic suffix -nna and its variants -nni, -n (corroboration n) are added to the indicative, jussive and imperative. -nni is used in the dual. -n never occurs in the dual or feminine plural. -nna and its variants are deleted before another consonant. The suffixes -nna and -nn are preceded by the -a in the indicative, jussive and imperative moods.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>indicative</th>
<th>jussive</th>
<th>imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hunna yaktub-a-nna</td>
<td>la-tashrab-a-nna</td>
<td>?uktub-a-nn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa taktubaa-ni</td>
<td>la-tathhabaa-nni</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>imperf. energ.</th>
<th>imper. energ.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?ana la-?adfa9-a-nna</td>
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<tr>
<td>nahnu la-nadfa9-a-nna</td>
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<td>?anta la-tadfa9-a-nna</td>
<td>adfa9-a-nna</td>
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<td>?anti la-tadfa9-i-nna</td>
<td>adfa9-i-nna</td>
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<tr>
<td>?antumaa la-tadfa9-aa-nni</td>
<td>adfa9-aa-nni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumla-tadfa9-u-nna</td>
<td>adfa9-u-nna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antunna la-tadfa9-naa-nni</td>
<td>adfa9-naa-nni</td>
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<tr>
<td>huwa la-yadfa9-a-nna</td>
<td></td>
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<td>hiya la-tadfa9-a-nna</td>
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<tr>
<td>humaa la-yadfa9-aa-nni</td>
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<td>humaa la-tadfa9-aa-nni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hum la-yadfa9-u-nna</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunna la-yadfa9-naa-nni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.3 Translation from English

Arabic has five equivalent pronouns to the English second person you: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?anta</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?anti</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>?antumaa</td>
<td>you</td>
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<td>?antunna</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huwa</td>
<td>you</td>
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<tr>
<td>hiya</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>humaa</td>
<td>you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, Arabic pronominal pronouns, that denote number, gender, case, constitute an inseparable part of the Arabic verb. Therefore, an imperative English sentence would have five Arabic equivalents:
Open the window.

Although there is no agreement between the subject and the finite verb in the third person singular. The present and the past tense forms are indistinguishable in English subjunctives used in that-clauses after verbs and adjectives like insist, demand, require, move, ask, propose, suggest, essential, necessary, yet the Arabic equivalent verbs are always inflected, and there is subject-verb agreement in number, gender, person,

*It is necessary that every employee inform himself of these rules.*

*I suggested that he go on a bus tour.*

The Arabic equivalent to English subjunctive used in idioms expressing a strong wish is not literal. Equivalent Arabic expressions used in similar situations. Although the English subjunctive consists of the base form of the verb (the verb is uninflected), the Arabic equivalent verb is inflected for tense, person, number, gender, etc...

*God save the king.*

*Heaven forbid that he should fail his exams.*

*So be it then!*
The Arabic equivalent to English conditional and subordinate clauses in which were is used after optative verbs like wish consists of an optative verb like ﺍﲤタイミング and the optative article ﻟﻮ. When an unreal meaning is expressed, the first and the third person singular past of the verb be is used. In Arabic, there is subject-verb agreement.

I wish I were in Switzerland.

I wish I were in Switzerland.

If I was/were to do something, I would stop the war immediately.

She spoke to me as if she were my boss.

She spoke to me as if she were my boss.

She walks as if she were a queen.

She walks as if she were a queen.

6.4 Translation from Arabic:
- The Arabic imperative has five forms: masculine singular, feminine singular, dual, masculine plural, feminine plural. There is only one equivalent to these five forms:

Write.

Write.

- The English equivalent to Arabic verbs that only occur in the imperative is a verb.

Suppose!

give me!

Let's go!

come along!

come along!
The English equivalent to Arabic indeclinable forms that are used as an imperative is a regular uninflected imperative verb:

\( \text{ﺍﻟﺪﺭﺱ} \quad \text{Write your lesson.} \)

\( \text{ﺣﺬﺍﺭ} \quad \text{Beware! Be careful!} \)

All Arabic imperfect verbs are inflected in the indicative mood by the indicative mood suffix and its variants. The English equivalents will be inflected for the present tense by the suffix -s when used with he and she; the uninflected form will be used with the other pronouns.

**Subjunctive**

Imperfect verbs take the suffix -a (fatha) instead of the indicative -u when preceded by the particles \( \text{ﺍﺫﻥ} \) \( \text{kﻲ} \) \( \text{lﻦ} \) \( \text{ﺍﻥ} \). In such a case damma is substituted by fatha; and -ni and -na are deleted, e.g.:

In Arabic, an imperfect verb is in the jussive mood, when it is preceded by the particles \( \text{ﺍﻥ} \), \( \text{ﺍﻟﻨﺎﻫﻴﺔ} \), \( \text{ﻻ} \), \( \text{ﺍﻻﻣﺮ} \), \( \text{ﻻﻡ} \), \( \text{ﳌﺎ} \), \( \text{ﻣﻬﻤﺎﱂ} \), \( \text{ﻣﻦ} \), \( \text{ﻣﺎ} \), \( \text{ﺍﺫ} \) \( \text{ﺍﻳﺎﻥ} \) \( \text{عكس} \) \( \text{웅} \) \( \text{ﺍﻱ} \) \( \text{kﻴﻔﻤﺎ} \) \( \text{mﺎ} \) \( \text{ﺍﻧﻮ} \) \( \text{ﺣﻴﺜﻤﺎ} \) \( \text{ﺍﻳﻨﻤﺎ} \). The indicative suffixes -u (damma), -ni, and -na are deleted. The English equivalent to Arabic verbs in the jussive mood is the negative.
The energetic suffix -nna and its variants -nni, -n (corroboration n) are added to the indicative, jussive and imperative. -nni is used in the dual. -n never occurs in the dual or feminine plural. -nna and its variants are deleted before another consonant. The suffixes -nna and -nn are preceded by the -a in the indicative, jussive and imperative moods.
7. **Transitivity**

Verbs may be intransitive or transitive. An intransitive verb is one that does not take an object to complete its meaning such as walk, sleep, run, sit, and stand. A transitive verb is one that may take a direct object, indirect object, object of preposition or complement to complete its meaning. Some transitive verbs may also be transitive without an expressed object though they may be really transitive in meaning, e.g. she is cooking, I am writing, he reads, they are eating.

7.1 **Transitivity in English**

We cannot tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does not indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because English verbs are not inflected for transitivity. No suffixes are used to transform an intransitive verb into a transitive one or vice versa.

7.2 **Transitivity in Arabic**

In Arabic, one can tell whether a verb is transitive or intransitive by looking at it in isolation. The verb form does indicate whether it is transitive or intransitive, because Arabic transitive verbs are characterized by certain verb patterns. The verb patterns fa9ula like ﺪ أ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ 

An intransitive verb can be transformed to a transitive verb by adding the prefix ?a-(changing the verb to the pattern ?af9al) as in ﺪ أ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ 

by doubling C2 (changing the verb to the pattern fa99al) as in ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ 

by adding /aa/ after C1 (changing the verb to the pattern ta9al) as in ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ 

by adding the prefix ?ist- (changing the verb to the pattern ?istaf9al) as in ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ ﺪ 

by adding a preposition bi, fii
after the verb as in

A transitive verb can be transformed to an intransitive verb by adding the prefix *in- as in ٍ<=> ٍ<=> ٍ<=> by adding the prefix *ta- ٍ<=> ٍ<=>; by deleting the above prefixes and infixes.

Examples with * were taken from La Rousse

7.3 Translation from English

- The Arabic equivalent to an intransitive verb that is not followed by an object or a complement is also intransitive:
  The baby slept. ٍ<=>
  They laughed ٍ<=>

- The Arabic equivalent to English verbs that are both intransitive and transitive, i.e. verbs that can be used with or without an object can be also used with or without an object, e.g.:
  Mary is reading ٍ<=>
  Mary is reading a book ٍ<=>
  John is eating ٍ<=>
  John is eating an apple ٍ<=>

- The Arabic equivalent to English intransitive verbs of position like sit and stand, and to verbs of motion like come, go, run, that are often followed by phrases of place or motion are also followed by phrases of place or motion, e.g.:
  The boy is walking along the street ٍ<=>
  They sat on the bench ٍ<=>
She stood on the chair
I went to school.

- English phrasal verbs such as turn off are usually followed by an object and hence they are considered transitive. The Arabic equivalent to English phrasal verbs is not a phrasal verb, because such phrasal verbs have an idiomatic meaning. The equivalent is a single word followed by an object, e.g.:

She turned off the lights

Leech pp. 217, 488.

7.4 Translation from Arabic

- Arabic verbs that denote an instinct, a physical quality, a color, a deformity, cleanliness, state of being full or empty, a naturally inherent quality like are intransitive. Such Arabic verbs are derived from adjectives. The English equivalent to such verbs consists of a verb like become or be + adjective. English has no verbs derived from the adjectives courage, tall, blue, blind, able, clean, full, sick, sad. became courageous; became tall; became blue; went blind; was able to; became clean; was full; was full; got sick; was sad.

- The English equivalent to Arabic intransitive verbs like sometimes consists of a transitive verb or be or become + adjective, e.g.:

The metal melted

The plants became/turned/were green.

The deed was honorable.
The soldiers retreated.
The boy was sick.

- The English equivalent to Arabic transitive verbs is also transitive, e.g.:
  - The glass broke.
  - I broke the glass.
  - I smashed the glass (broke into small pieces).

- The little boy played.
- I played with the little boy repeatedly/for a long time.
- I played with the little boy (we played with each other).

- The boy sat down.
- I had her sit next to me.
- Seated the little boy.
- Had the little boy sit down.
- Sat down with my father; I sat in my father's company, I kept my father's company; I sat down with my father and socialized with him.
8. **Voice**

Voice is a syntactic pattern which indicates the verb-subject relationship. Voice is a modification of the verb to show the relation of its subject to the action expressed. (Covell).

### 8.1 English Voice

The principal English voices are active and passive. The active and the passive are merely two forms of the same verb: both express action. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries out some action as in:

- *He hit the ball.*
- *He ate an orange.*

In the passive voice, the subject of the verb is the receiver of some action or state indicated by the verb, and the doer of the action becomes the object of the preposition by as in:

- *The ball was hit by the boy.*
- *The orange was eaten by him.*
- *The building is being refurbished.*
- *The chair was sat on.*

In the active, the object may be omitted; in the passive,

In English, voice is shown by the use of auxiliary words and the past participle of the verb followed by the by-phrase, the agent may be omitted or preceded by e.g.:

- *An apple is eaten by the boy.*
- *An apple was eaten by the boy*  
- *The car is being repaired.*
- *The money has been paid.*
- *The money will be paid by the customer.*
- *It can be done.*
- *It has to be done.*
- *It will be written by Mary.*

An intransitive verb with a preposition after it may be passivized, taking the object of preposition for its subject. In the passive, the agent may be omitted, e.g.:

- *The pen was written with.*
8.2 **Arabic Voice**

The principal Arabic voices are active and passive voices. In the active voice, the subject of the verb carries some action. The doer of the action is explicit to us as in:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Active} & \quad \text{passive} \\
\text{ﺮ} & \quad \text{ﺮ} \\
\text{ﻚ} & \quad \text{ﻚ} \\
\text{ﻜ} & \quad \text{ﻜ} \\
\text{ﻴ} & \quad \text{ﻴ} \\
\text{ﺘ} & \quad \text{ﺘ} \\
\end{align*}
\]

In the passive voice, the subject of the verb is the receiver of the action or state indicated by the verb. The doer of the action is not explicit to us, as in:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Active} & \quad \text{passive} \\
\text{ﺮ} & \quad \text{ﺮ} \\
\text{ﻚ} & \quad \text{ﻚ} \\
\text{ﻜ} & \quad \text{ﻜ} \\
\text{ﻴ} & \quad \text{ﻴ} \\
\text{ﺘ} & \quad \text{ﺘ} \\
\end{align*}
\]

In Arabic, voice is shown by mutation (change of vowel in the verb). In imperfect verbs, the vowel following C1 is changed to /u/ and the vowel that follows C2 is changed to /i/ as in (1). In perfect verbs, C1 is followed by /u/ and C2 is followed by /a/ as in (2). If C2 consists of /ii/ or /uu/ in the present active verb, they change to /aa/ in the passive as in (3) and (4), and if the final consonant consists of /ii/ or /uu/ in the active, they change into /aa/ in the passive as in (5) and (6):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>passive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ﱉ</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Some Arabic verbs only occur in the passive such as:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Active} & \quad \text{passive} \\
\text{ﻚ} & \quad \text{ﻚ} \\
\text{ﻚ} & \quad \text{ﻚ} \\
\text{ﻜ} & \quad \text{ﻜ} \\
\text{ﻴ} & \quad \text{ﻴ} \\
\text{ﺘ} & \quad \text{ﺘ} \\
\end{align*}
\]
8.3 Translation from English

The Arabic equivalent to English passive verbs is as follows:

- **present simple:**
  
  *X is used for*  

- **past simple:**
  
  *An apple was eaten*  

- **modal pattern:**
  
  *The money will be paid*  
  *It can be done*  
  *It has to be done*  

- **Present prog.:**
  
  *The car is being repaired*  

- **Past prog.:**
  
  *The problem was being discussed*  

  *The problem was being discussed when he entered the room*  

- **Present perf.:**
  
  *The party has been cancelled*  
  *The money has been paid.*  

- **past perf.:**
  
  *She said that the party had been cancelled*
modal perfect:
The apple could have been eaten.

other passive structures:
I was taught how to ride a bicycle.

She was told that she got the job.

He was asked how long he would stay at the office.

The medicine must be kept away from children.

I was advised to take this medicine.

He has been known to come to work on time.

The children were found playing in the street.

Leech pp. 329-334.

8.4 Translation from Arabic
1.  

113
The mosque was built two centuries ago.

Cheese is made from milk.

2. The English equivalent to Arabic verbs that only occur in the passive is generally active:

- He took care of the little boy.
  The little boy was taken care of.

- The man went crazy

- The patient fainted.

- He regretted; He felt sorry for what he did.

- He fainted.

- He was fond of art.

- I had a headache.
I am attached to my work.

The glass broke.

The rope broke.

The fire broke out.

The family was separated.

The shirt was worn out.
9. **Comparison**  
(Webster)

Comparison is the modification of adjectives and adverbs to show its three degrees of quality: positive, comparative and superlative.

**English Comparison**  
In English, comparison may be indicated by inflections. Many English adjectives inflect for the comparative and superlative as follows:

- **Short adjectives and a few monosyllabic adverbials can take comparative and superlative suffixes -er and -est as in:**
  
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>longer</td>
<td>longest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>faster</td>
<td>fastest</td>
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</table>

- **some two-syllable adjectives and adverbs, especially those ending in -ly and -y can take the comparative and superlative suffixes -er, -est, e.g.:**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>polite</td>
<td>politer</td>
<td>politest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>funny</td>
<td>funnier</td>
<td>funniest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lovely</td>
<td>lovelier</td>
<td>loveliest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
<td>earlier</td>
<td>earliest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **A suppletive form is used with a few adjectives, e.g.:**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>better</td>
<td>best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>worse</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>farther</td>
<td>farthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>far</td>
<td>further</td>
<td>furthest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>little</td>
<td>less</td>
<td>least</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- **The variants more and most are added before polysyllabic adjectives and most adverbs such as:**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>more interesting</td>
<td>most interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfortable</td>
<td>more comfortable</td>
<td>most comfortable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>slowly</td>
<td>more slowly</td>
<td>most slowly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
0 suffix is used with some adjectives. Those do not allow inflected forms for the comparative and superlative forms in any construction such as unique, annual.

9.2 Arabic Comparison
(Azmi, Wright, Kabawa, La Rousse,)

In Arabic, the comparative and the superlative are expressed by the elative. No special suffixes are added to the verb or the substantive to form the elative. The elative is derived from verbs. However, it cannot be derived from any verb. Intransitive verbs cannot be compared. The meaning should be comparable. The verb should have full conjugation. The verb should not indicate color, beauty, defect in the body or indicate weather and should not consist of more than three consonants. The elative is formed as follows:

- The pattern ?af9al is used to derive the comparative from the verb followed by the preposition min. The pattern ?af9al is used to derive the comparative and superlative forms from a verbal adjective consisting of three radicals:
  
  \[\text{kabir} \ ?\text{akbar} \text{ min} \]
  \[\text{jamiil} \ ?\text{ajmal} \text{ min} \]

- The variants (the function words) \[\text{،} \text{؟} \? \text{،} \text{؟} \text{،} \text{؟} \text{،} \text{؟} \text{،} \text{؟} \] are used to compare adjectives derived from the passive verbs, verbs consisting of more than three radicals, with verbal adjectives that denote color or a physical deformity, e.g.:
  
  \[\text{حماة} \text{ ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{ء} \text{
Comparative forms are not marked for number or gender. However, the superlative form is marked for number and gender.

9.3 Translation from English

To compare two things, two people, groups of people, the comparative form with -er or more, followed by than is used. When the comparison is between three or more things, three or more people or three or more groups of people and one is picked up as having more X than all the others, the superlative form with -est or most is used.

Comparative words can be used without than, when we know what is being compared, e.g.:
*men have greater strength than women. Yes, but women live longer.

*Air travel is becoming more popular. True, but I wish it were cheaper.

*To express the idea of continuing change, more and more are used, e.g.:
Our sales figures are getting better and better.

*his visits are growing more and more frequent.

Adverbs of degree such as little, any, no, somewhat, can make a comparative word stronger or weaker, e.g.:
This car is much/ a lot/ somewhat/a little/no cheaper than that one.
Your car isn't any faster than mine.

9.4 Translation from Arabic

- *The* is often used before the superlative, e.g.:
  
  *She is the oldest in the family.*

- After a superlative in or of + NP are used to say what is being compared. Usually *of* is followed by a plural noun, while *in* is followed by a singular noun.
  
  *John is the best of the three artists.*
  
  *Tokyo is the largest city in the world*

- A possessive noun or a possessive determiner can be used before the superlative, e.g.:
  
  *The word's largest city is Tokyo.*
  
  *Shakespeare's best play was Hamlet.*

- The words *first*, *last* and *next* behave like superlatives.

  Leech pp. 84-87. examples* taken from Leech

**Arabic vs. English**

(Stockwell)

In Arabic, there is a full set of distinctions for PERSON and NUMBER, a partial set of CASE distinctions, specifically marked GENDER forms and a LEVEL OF FORMALIRY category in the form of
the second person.

*Set of third person pronouns.*

*Set of second person pronouns.*

Separate forms used with prepositions appear only in the group of pronouns. There is no formal distinction to mark any different functions (reflexive, indirect object, direct object) of the with-verb group.

Number and gender distinctions are maintained for subject/object, attached and independent, and with-preposition and with-verb forms, in indirect and reflexive.

The English pronoun system is simpler, with distinctions for number, case and gender distinctions. Gender distinctions occur only in the third person singular forms. The others are unmarked. Arabic has 15 pronouns corresponding to the English pronoun 'you'. All the other English pronouns have 3 Arabic equivalents. The student has to pay attention to pronouns so that she will understand the forms and develop a feeling for the categories they express. The relative placement of the pronoun forms in the sentence requires special attention.

There is left a large class of items with only a single form, without any inflection variants.

There is no easy way to compare the forms within the classes (parts of speech). The inflectional categories do not match in any of the word classes.
Derivation
Morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation. Derivation is the process of forming words from bases or roots by the addition of affixes, by internal phonetic change often with a change in the form class of a word. (Webster). The words with which derivational suffixes combine is an arbitrary matter. The derivational paradigm is a set of related words composed of the same base morpheme and all the derivational affixes that can go with this base. e.g.: employ, employer, employment, employee, employed, under-employment, unemployment, unemploy; beauty, beautiful, beautify, beautification, beautician.

A stem is what is left when inflectional elements have been taken away from a form. A stem consisting of more than one morpheme is called a derived stem. These, in their turn, break down into primary and secondary derived stems. In both of these types we distinguish between derivatives, which are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another.

The processes of stem formation in English: (1) the addition of derivational affixes to roots or to stems of two or more morphemes will be described on the basis of the affixes used. For each affix is noted: the class or classes of stems (including roots) with which it is used and any pertinent restrictions within the class or classes; the class of stems produced; and any morphophonemic changes in either the affix itself or the stem. (Gleason)

1. English Derivation

In English, derived stems (derivatives) are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another. Derived stems are either primary or secondary. In a primary derivative, none of the constituent element is a stem, but one is a derivational affix, and the other is a derivationally bound form called a base as in receive, deceive, conceive. Primary derivation involves forms which are bound on the derivational level. In a secondary derivative, one of the immediate constituents is a stem, and the other is a derivational affix of some derivational formations as in reception, attractive. Secondary derivation involves forms which are themselves susceptible of use in inflection (introduce, introductory, introduction).

- Receive, deceive, conceive, perceive.
• Eject, reject, project, inject, subject.
• Attract, subtract, detract, distract, contract, extract.

In a secondary derivation, one constituent element is a stem and the other is a derivational prefix or suffix of some kind.

1.1 Prefixation
(Bauer, Quirk)
The vast majority of English prefixes are class-maintaining. Prefixes will be considered in terms of the form class of the base to which they are added. The majority of prefixes can be added to bases of more than one form class. Productive prefixes normally have a slight stress on their first syllable, the main stress of the word coming on the base.

(i) Class-changing prefixes are those that produce a derived form of the same class (Quirk). The following prefixes change the word class: a- asleep, ablaze, ashore; be- bedazzled, becalm, befriend, bewitch; en- enslave, enlarge, enchant.

(ii) Class-maintaining prefixes are those that produce a derived form of the same class. The following prefixes do not change the word class: un- unjust, uncover; non- non-stop; in- incomplete; dis-discomfort, dislocate; a- anemia, amoral; de- decompose, degenerate; mis- misjudge, misunderstand, mal-malnutrition; pseudo- pseudo-cleft; arch- arch-bishop; super-supernatural; out- outperform; sub-subterranean, submarine; over- overdo; under- underestimate; hyper- hyper-active; co-cooperate; counter- counter-balance; anti- anti-aircraft, pro-pro-American; inter-; trans-; fore-; pre-; post-; ex-; re; uni-; mon-; bi-; di-; tri-; multi-; poly-; auto-; neo-; pan-; proto-; semi-; vice-.

1.2 Suffixation
In many cases, a derivational suffix changes the part of speech of the word to which it is added. e.g.:
(i) Class-maintaining affixes that produce a derived form of the same class. (Quirk & Greenbaum). The following suffixes do

(ii) Class-changing derivatives that produce a derived form of another class, such as:

a. **Verb-forming derivational affixes**: -fy, beautify; -ate, fabricate; -en, harden, strengthen; -ize, industrialize.

b. **noun-forming derivational affixes**: -er, teacher, New Yorker, teenager; -ant, informant; -ee, trainee; -ation, coordination, organization; -ment, employment; -al, *refusal, *ing, reading, *building, -age, breakage; -ion, impression; -ance, entrance; -ure, pressure; -ness, dizziness; -ity, humanity; -ocracy, democracy; -th, width; -(i)an, politician; -ite, *socialite; -ese, Lebanese; -al, socialist; -ism, criticism, socialism; *adealism

c. **adjective-forming derivational affixes**: -al, logical; -ical, economical; -ial, partial, -ful, beautiful; -able, comprehensible; -ish, yellowish, Irish, childish; -ible, edible; -ed, curved; -ive, possessive; -ative, comparative; -itive, additive; -ic, synthetic; -an, European; -ern, western; -ous, joyous; -y, gloomy; -ory, introductory; -ly, manly, daily; -ary, customary.

d. **Adverb-forming derivational affixes**: -ly, quickly; -ward(s), backwards; -wise, moneywise, *crabwise.

Many English words change their vowels or final consonants when they are followed by certain derivational suffixes as in: decide, decision; flame, flammable; concede concession.

The location of word stress may depend on the suffix.
2. Arabic Derivation

Derivation from existing Arabic roots has always been considered the most natural way to create new vocabulary. Arabic has 3 main types of derivation:

1.2 Root modification (الإبدال)

It involves a change in the position of the root consonants and the retention of the original meaning, as in:

- ﺛﻠﺐ، ﻣﻼﺏ
- ﻷﺍﺟﺰﺭ
- ﻷﺎﺟﺰﻡ
- ﻷﺎﺟﺰﻝ
- ﻷﺎﺟﺰﻉ
- ﻷﺎﺟﺪﺵ
- ﻷﺎﺟﺪﻉ

* ﺟﺪﻉ: anxiety
* ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: perforate, excavate;
* ﺟﺰﻡ: bore into;
* ﺛﻠﺐ: eat holes into
* ﺟﺪﻉ: cut off;
* ﺟﺰﻉ: to be numb
* ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: adhere, stick
* ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: hit; ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: hit, slap; ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: punch; ﻷﺎﺟﺰ: punch

1.3 Metathesis (القلب / الاشتقاق الكبير)

It involves a change in the position of the root consonants and the retention of the original meaning:
2.3 Simple Derivation (ﺍﻟﺼﻐﲑﺍﻻﺷﺘﻘﺎﻕ)

It plays the most prominent role in the process of creating new words. Many Arabic words are formed from a root consisting of three consonants and a set of vowels that alternate with the root consonants and that act rather like an affix. Here the radical consonants are not changed in any way, but are derived from and built upon. Different sets of patterns are used in that process. Derived verbs and derived nouns are produced by lengthening a vowel, doubling C2, doubling C3, adding a prefix or infix. Some of the derivational patterns used in deriving the different kinds of nouns and verbs are listed below:

Derived Nouns:

- agents (ﺍﻟﻔﺎﻋﻞ ﻋﺎﱂ ﻋﺎﻣﻞ ﻋﺎﻣﻞ ﻋﺎﻡ ﺑﺎﻝ ﺑﺎﻝ ﺑﺎﻝ)  
- Patients (ﺍﻟﻤﻔﻌﻮﻝ ﻣﻔﻬﻮﻡ ﻣﻜﺘﻮﺏ ﻣﻘﺮﻭﺀ ﻣﺴﻤﻮﻉ ﻣﺪﺭﻭﺱ)  
- nouns that express the doing of the action once (ﻓﻌﻠﺔ ﻋﺪﻭﺓ ﺗﺤﺴﺔ ﻋﺸﺔ ﻋﻨﺔ ﻋﻨﺔ ﻋﻨﺔ ﻋﻨﺔ)  
- nouns that indicate the manner of doing what is expressed by a verb (ﺍﻟﻤﻴﺘﺔ ﻣﹺﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ ﻣِﻠﺴﺔ)  
- nouns of place and time (ﺍﻟﻤِﻔﻌﻞ ﻣﻐﺮﺏ ﻣﺸﺮﻕ ﻣﻮﻋﺪ ﻣﻠﺘﻘﻲ ﻣﻴﻌﺎﺩ ﻣﺼﻴﻒ ﻣﺼﻴﻒ ﻣﺼﻴﻒ)  
- nouns of occupation (ครีมﻱ ﻣأﺰﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ ﻋﻤﺎﺭﺓ)
• small pieces that you can throw away

• nouns of instruments, appliances, tools

• nouns of flow and diseases

• constant occupation or behavior

• relative adjectives

• abstract nouns of quality


**Derived Verbs**

a.  

- **the diminutive**  

b. **causative or factice signification** as in:

- declarative or estimative:  

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- making or doing of, or being occupied with the thing expressed by the noun from which it is derived:  

- movement towards a place:  

b. implies reciprocity:  

c. indicates the following:  

- movement towards a place:  
- entering upon a period of time:  
- getting into a state or condition:  
- acquiring a quality:  
- obtaining or having something:  

d. expresses the following:  

- the idea of intensiveness:  
- the idea of reflexiveness:  

e. expresses the following:  

- the idea of reflexiveness:  

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- reciprocity
- actions that take place bit by bit or by successive efforts:

f. ٍexpresses an act to be done in reference to him, or an effort to be produced by him: ُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُُِ١٣٠
3. Comparison

In English, derivational affixes are stem-forming. Derivation is a continuing process, with some affixes still producing new words. English has derivational prefixes and suffixes as well. English and Arabic do not share any derivational affixes (equivalent forms). They do not share any suffixes and prefixes that show common origin and meaning.

The student has to learn the morphological range of derivational suffixes. The most likely problems she will encounter is obtaining a close equivalent in Arabic and troublesome problems in connection with the denotative and connotative ranges of morphological derivation.

Derivational suffixes do not close off a word, that is, after a derivational suffix one can sometimes add another derivational suffix and can frequently add an inflectional suffix.

4. Translation from English

(Stageberg)

a. Words are composed of three kinds of morphemes: bases, prefixes and suffixes. To figure out the meaning of a word, we can analyze the word into its constituent parts. We divide the word into the two parts of which it seems to have been composed. We continue to cut each part into two more parts until we reduce the word to its ultimate constituents (until all component morphemes of a word have been isolated), i.e., to the unit morpheme of which it is composed. e.g.:

invaluable ==> un/valuable ==> value/able.

b. The inflectional morpheme /-er1/ has two homophones. The first is the derivational suffix /-er2/ which is attached to verbs to form nouns (teacher, writer) It is called the agent -er and conveys the meaning of "that which performs the action of the verb stem". The second derivational -er suffix appears at the end of words like
flicker, glitter, chatter, utter, suffer. This /-er3/ conveys the meaning of repetition.

c. The inflectional suffix /-ing1/ has two homophones. The first one is the derivational suffix /-ing2/ which is found in words like writings, readings, meetings findings, meanings. This morpheme is derivational since it permits the addition of an inflectional suffix -s. When the word occurs alone without the inflectional suffix, as in writing, reading, meeting, the -ing is ambiguous, for it could be either /-ing1/ as in he is writing, or /-ing2/ as in his writings. The second homophone of /-ing1/ is the adjectival morpheme /-ing3/ as in interesting book. There are several tests by which the verbal /-ing1/ can be distinguished from the adjectival /-ing3/. The verbal /-ing1/ can usually occur before as well as after the noun it modifies:

    I read an interesting book.
    The book is interesting.

The adjectival /-ing3/ can be preceded by a qualifier like very, rather, quite or by the comparative and superlative words more and most as in:

    I read a very interesting book.

d. The verbal /-d/ has a homophone in the adjectival /-d3/ as in: she is interested in math. The adjectival /-d3/ is characterized by its capacity for modification by qualifiers like very, rather, quite and by more and most. The verbal /-d2/ does not accept such modifiers.

e. The inflectional suffix /-ly1/ partakes of the characteristics of both derivational and inflectional. This /-ly1/ is added to most adjectives to form adverbs as in quickly, sharply. The adverbial /-ly1/ has a homophone the derivational suffix /-ly2/, an adjectival morpheme that is distributed as follows:

    - it is added to monosyllabic nouns to form adjectives that are inflected with -er, -est (timely, manly, costly).
    - it is added to plurisyllabic nouns to form adjectives that are not inflected with -er, -est cowardly, brotherly, fatherly, scholarly, heavenly).
- It is added to a few adjectives, giving alternate adjectival forms that are also inflected with -er, -est (lively, kindly).
- It is added to short list of time nouns to form adjectives (daily, hourly, monthly, weekly). Westerly winds

f. **negation prefixes:**
- This prefix a- is also added to adjectival bases, e.g.: amoral, apolitical, atypical,
- un- : the opposite of, not, e.g.: unsuccessful
- non- : not, e.g.: non-stop
- in- : the opposite of, not, e.g.: inaccurate
- dis- : the opposite of, not, e.g.: disconnect
- de- : to reverse action, e.g.: decompose, deaestheticize, deboost, decapacitate, deescalate, desensitize.


g. **Reversative prefixes:**
- un- : to reverse action, e.g.: unfasten; to deprive of unhorse.
- de- : to reverse action, e.g.: decompose
- dies- : the opposite of, not, e.g.: discomfort

h. **Pejorative prefixes:**
- mis-: wrongly, e.g.: mismanage, misunderstand; astray, e.g.: misleading
- mal-: bad(ly), e.g.: malnutrition, malfunction, maladjustment.
- pseudo- : false, imitation, e.g.: pseudonym

i. **Prefixes of degree/size**
- arch-: highest, worst, e.g.: arch-bishop, arch-enemy
- super- : above, e.g.: supernatural ; more than, e.g.: super; better, e.g.: superexcellent,
- out-: to do something faster, e.g.: outperform; longer outlive
- sur- : over and above, e.g.: surcharge
- sub- : lower than, less than, e.g.: subterranean, subway
- over-: too much, e.g.: overexercise
- under-: too little, e.g: underestimate
- hyper-: extremely, e.g.: hyperactive
- hypo- : hypotension
- ultra- : extremely, beyond, e.g.: ultra-sound
j. **prefixes of attitude:**
   - co-: with, joint, e.g.: co-worker
   - counter-: in apposition to, e.g.: counter-balance, counter-act,
   - anti-: against, e.g.: anti-aircraft, antibiotic, anti-Semitic
   - pro-: on the side of, e.g.: pro-Arab, pro-consul.

k. **locative adjectives:**
   - sub-: beneath, lesser in rank, e.g.: subterranean
   - super-: over, e.g.: superimpose
   - inter-: between, among, e.g.: intermix, intercellular.
   - trans-: across, from one place to another, e.g.: trans-world, trans-Atlantic, trans-continental,

l. **prefixes of time and order:**
   - fore-: before, e.g.: forecast
   - pre-: before, e.g.: pre-historic, pre-natal, pre-registration, pre-conference.
   - post-: after, e.g.: post-graduate
   - ex-: former, e.g.: ex-wife, ex-president.
   - re-: again, back, e.g.: re-unite, return

m. **number prefixes:**
   - uni-: one, e.g.: uni-cellular
   - mono-: one, e.g.: monosyllabic
   - bi-: two, e.g.: binocular
   - di-: two, e.g.: disyllabic
   - tri-: three, e.g.: tripod
   - multi-: many, e.g.: multicultural
   - poly-: many, e.g.: polyglot

n. **other prefixes:**
   - auto-: self, e.g.: autonomy, auto-focus.
   - neo-: new, revived, e.g.: neo-classical
   - pan-: all, world-wide, e.g.: *pan-pacific
proto- : first, original, e.g.: proto-type,
semi- : half, e.g.: semi-circular
vice- : deputy, e.g.: vice-president.
a- : This prefix mainly forms adjectives. The adjectives formed by this process are restricted to predicative position: the baby is asleep. e.g.: ablaze, *aclutter, *astir, *awash, *asquish, aswivel, *awhirl. (*Bauer)
en-: this prefix forms transitive verbs, mainly from nouns, e.g.: *entomb, *ensnare, *enslave.(Bauer),

o. occupational suffixes:
  -ster : person engaged in, e.g., *gangster.
  -eer : an occupation or activity, e.g.: mountaineer,
  -er : inhabitant, e.g.: New Yorker.

p. diminutive or feminine:
  -let : small, e.g.: booklet, leaflet, anklet; unimportant, e.g.: piglet.
  -ess: female, e.g.: tigress
  -ette: small, compact, e.g.: *kitchenette; compact, e.g.: N, *cigarette; imitation (material), N, *flannette; female, N, *usherette;

q. Status, domain suffixes:
  -hood : neighborhood; manhood, parenthood
  -ship: status, condition e.g.: scholarship, friendship; courtship; hardship
  -ocracy : system of government, e.g.: democracy bureaucracy, autocracy, theocracy, aristocracy;
  -dom : domain, condition, e.g.: kingdom, freedom, boredom,
  -(e)ry : abstract nouns, behavior, e.g.: rivalry, chivalry, bravery; concrete nouns, place of activity or abode, e.g.: confectionery, *refinery; non-count nouns, collectively, e.g.: machinery

r. verb-forming suffixes:
-fy, -ize, -en are causative beautify, industrialize, harden

-ate: make. fabric +ate =fabricate; initiate; facility +ate = facilitate;

-en: become X, e.g.: strength + -en = strengthen, widen + -en = widen

S. noun-forming derivational affixes:
-er, -or, -ant: agentive and instrumental, e.g.: teacher, inhabitant, informant, New Yorker, actor, donator,

-ee: passive, e.g.: trainee, testee, employee, examinee, deportee, refugee,

-ation: state, action, e.g.: determination, industrialization

-ment: state, action, e.g.: employment, advancement, government, enjoyment

-ics: statistics; linguistics; politics; astronautics.

-ing: the substance of which N is composed N, *paneling, padding.

-ful: the amount which N contains, e.g.: N, spoonful, handful,

-al: action, e.g.: *refusal, dismissal, rental, arrival, denial

-ance: entrance, tolerance, correspondence, concordance,
-ure: pressure, -ness: state, quality, e.g.: dizziness, happiness, sadness, fitness, loudness, madness

-ity: state, quality, e.g.: humanity, productivity, sensitivity, relativity

-ism: political movement, attitude, e.g.: criticism, socialism, communism, secularism, idealism, Zionism

-th: width, length, breadth

-(i)an: pertaining to, e.g.: politician, Shakespearean, technician; nationality, e.g.: European

-ite: member of community, faction/type, e.g.: *socialite, maronite, Shiite

-ese: nationality, e.g.: Lebanese, Siamese

-ist: member of a party, e.g.: socialist, communist, zionist

### Adjective-forming Suffixes:

- al, -ical, -ial, -ic, -an, -ern: pertaining to, e.g.: logical, economical, partial, synthetic, European, western

- ive, -ative, -itive: possessive, comparative, additive

- ary, -ory: binary, customary, introductory

- ly: manly, daily

- ous, -eous, -ious, -y, -ful: joyful, envious, courteous, gloomy, beautiful

- able, -ible: able, worthy to, e.g.: comprehensible, edible, breakable, combustible, flammable
- (i) an: pertaining to, e.g.: politician, Shakespearian, Shakespearean, technician; nationality, e.g.: European,
- ite: member of community, faction/type e.g.: *socialite, maronite; shiite
- ese : nationality, e.g.: Lebanese,t lý; Siamese t lý
- ist: member of a party, e.g.: socialist, communist; zionist;
- ish: somewhat, e.g.: yellowish, brownish. Belonging to, e.g.: Irish ,B lí; Swedish ,B lí; Having the character of, e.g.: childish.
- ed : having, e.g.: curved; granulated; pleted; isolated;
- ist: member of a party, e.g.: socialist, communist; occupation, e.g.: dentist, geologist, cardiologist, economist.
- ory: mandatory, obligatory, and explanatory.
- ary : pulmonary, voluntary,
- ate: *affectionate, passionate, compassionate.

u. adverb-forming derivational affixes:
- ly: in a ... manner, e.g.: quickly
- ward(s): manner, direction, e.g.: backwards, forward, downward
- wise: as far as is ... concerned, e.g.: moneywise; in the manner of, e.g.: *crabwise

5. Translation of Arabic
Compounding
Compounds are groups of two or more elements treated as a unit. They consist of two or more bases joined together without the use of derivational affixes. Compounds are either primary or secondary. In a primary compound or base-compound, two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together. In a secondary compound or stem-compound, both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems (free forms). Many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall). The formation of larger compounds is generally based on those of two-element compounds as light housekeeper is constructed from housekeeper and light (house).

Adjectives may be embedded in nominal constructions with no special marker (black coffee). For analyzing embedded constructions, the term head is used to refer to the center of the construction, the term attribute for the modifier. (Lehmann). An endocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the complete construction. An exocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction (Lehmann). The contrast between endocentric and exocentric is present in compounds as well as in derivatives. If the function of the compound is the same as that of one of its elements, it is to be classed as endocentric. If the compound belongs to a form-class or subdivision of one different from that of its elements, then it is exocentric. (Hall).

The description of English and Arabic compounds will entail listing both types of primary and secondary compounds, and the elements comprised in each. The list of compounds will include the presence of full stress on the first element, internal disjuncture /+/ and intermediate stress on the second element.

1. **English Compounds**

   English primary and secondary compounds can be formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. In English, compound nouns are the most common, verb compounds are not quite so common. Compounds will be described in terms of the word class to which the source items belong. (Burlin).
Sequences that we have to recognize as compounds may be written as a single word (agglutinated), may be hyphenated or separated by a space. No rules for that.

1.1 Primary Compounds (Neo-classical Compounds)

In a primary compound or a base compound, no derivational affix is involved and two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together (with or without some meaningless connecting element). Most examples occur in the English learned Graeco-Latin vocabulary (Hall). These elements, usually Greek or Latin in origin, and are termed combining forms by OED. Theses combining forms are treated as affixes because they are sometimes added to lexemes just like any other affix.

English primary compounds are formed from a large number of Greek and Latin bases. Some Greek and Latin prefixes are: *ambi-, ante-, anti-, arch-, bi-, circum-, counter-, de-, dis-, ex-, extra-, hyper-, hypo-, in-, inter-, intra-, intro-, mal-, mis-, mono-, multi-, non-, peri-, post-, pre-, pro-, quad-, re-, retro-, semi-, sub-, super-, syn-, trans-, tri-, ultra-, uni-, vice*.


Some Latin roots are: *equ-, annus-, aqua, aud, brevis, cid-, carnis, celer, cent-, civi-, claudiere, corpus, dentis, dexter, domus, donatus, duo, duplicare, fortis, genus, gratus, liber, lingua, luminis, magnus, mille, marinus, medius, nomen, pedis, plenus, populus, proximus, rectus, regula, sciens, sensus, solus, similis, tempor, vacuus, videre, vivere.*

- Appendicitis, sinusitis, bronchitis, tonsillitis.
- automatic, autonomous, automobile.
- autobiography
- Subway, subterranean, submarine, subclass.
- Television, telephoto, telegraph, telescope.
- Photograph, photocopy, photosynthesis.
- cardiogram, cardioscope, cardiovascular,
- electrocardiogram.
- Pathology, psychology, geology, biology, zoology.

The meaning of a primary compound can be generally understood from the meaning of its parts.

**Secondary Compounds**

In a secondary compound or stem-compound, no derivational affix is involved, and the constituents of a derived stem are simply juxtaposed and both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems. English has at least one fairly widespread type of stem compound, in our combinations of noun plus verb such as baby-sit. Many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall). English secondary compounds are formed in a variety of ways: two nouns, a verb followed by a noun, a noun followed by a verb, a verb and a preposition, an adjective and a noun. Compound nouns are the most common, whereas verb compounds are not quite so common. (Burlin). English compounds will be classified (described) on the basis of the function they play in a sentence as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs. The subclassification of compounds will be done by the form of the items that make up the compound (the word class to which the source items belong), because this type of classification will help focus on the semantic relationships within each of the categories provided. Compounds will be classified into compound nouns, compound verbs, compound adjectives and compound adverbs. Each kind of compound consists of a variety of components. (Bauer) the meaning of a secondary compound cannot be generally understood from the meaning of its parts.

**Compound nouns may consist of:**
Frank pp. 7-
- *possessive noun-noun: lady's maid, traveler's checks, women's college, a citizens bank.
- Verb + Noun: jump rope, pickpocket, flashlight.
• *Noun + Verb: handshake, lifeguard.
• *gerund + noun: living room, swimming pool.
• *noun + gerund: fortune telling, housekeeping, ice skating
• Particle + Noun: off-year, by-product, overdose
• Verb + prep/Adverb: makeup, breakdown, grown-up.

**Compound verbs**

*Frank p. 51

The majority of compound verbs are not formed by putting two lexemes together to form a new verb, but by back-formations which have been coined by dropping an -er agent-denoting suffix such as *sleep-walk (from the original sleep-walker), *baby-sit (from the original baby-sitter); or by conversion from compound nouns such as ill-treat (from the original ill-treatment) (Adams + Frank), compounds formed of particles and verbs seem to be general verbal formations.

• Noun + Verb: student teach, babysit, water skie, sleep-walk, sunbathe,
• Verb + Adjective: double-check.
• Particle + Verb: overdo, outreach, overlook, upgrade.
• *Adverb + Verb: ill-treat, dry-clean, cold-shoulder.

**Compound adjectives may consist of:**

*Frank p. 110-111.

• Noun+ Adjective: water proof, sky blue, air-borne, nationwide,
• Adjective + Adjective: icy cold, easygoing, good-hearted,
• Noun + Noun: coffee-table,
• Noun + Noun:
• Particle + Noun:
• Noun + Verb:
• adjective/adverb+noun
• verb + particle:
• *noun + participle: French-speaking, good-looking.
• *adjective + past participle: absent-minded, blue-eyed, near-sighted, short-tempered.
• *pp: a wall-to-wall carpet.
• *infinitive: a hard-to-please employer.
• *coordinated elements: a life-and-death struggle.
• set phrases or especially coined phrases: a get-rich-quick scheme
  *noun compounds may function as adjective compounds.

Such compounds usually require hyphen as in: -a high school girl, twentieth century literature.

**Compound adverbs such as:** in-sight, overnight,

**Rhyme-motivated compounds (Reduplicatives)**
(Quirk)
Some compounds have two or more elements which are either identical or only slightly different, as in goody-goody. The difference between the two elements may be in the initial consonants, as in walkie-talkie, or in the medial vowels e.g.: criss-cross. Most of the reduplicatives are highly informal or familiar, and many derive from the nursery, e.g.: din-din (dinner). Most common use of reduplicatives are:
- To imitate sound, e.g.: tick-tock.
- To suggest alternating movements, e.g.: seesaw.
- To disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation, e.g.: higgledy-piggledy, wishy-washy.
- To intensify, e.g.: tip-top.

2 The majority of this class are noun compounds made up of two nouns. In these compounds, the rhyme between the two elements is the major motivating factor in the formation, e.g.: hickety-pickety, stun-gun, flower-power, gang-bang, nitty-gritty, brain-drain,

**Stress patterns of English compounds**
**Plural formation of compounds.**

**PHRASAL (SYNTACTIC)**

*endocentric*
- adj + adj: bitter + sweet: bitter-sweet
- adj (verb participal head + adverb (attribute): cast-off

*Exocentric*
• N = adj (attribute) + N (head): red-cap
• N = adj + adj: bitter-sweet
• N = N (possessive, attribute) + N (head): bull's-eye
• N = V (head) + N (object): lick-spittle
• N = V (head) + Pro (object): dreadnought
• N = V (head) + Adv (attribute): run about
• N = Adj (verb participle, head) + Adv (attribute): cast-away

NONPHRASAL (ASYNTACTIC)

Endocentric
• N = N (attribute) + N (head): bus-ticket
• N = V (in Ing form, attribute) + N : swimming-pool.
• N = Adv (attribute) + N (head) : by-law
• Adj = n (attribute) + N (head): fire-proof
• Adj = N (attribute) +Participle (head): fly-blown
• V = n (object) + Verb (head): baby-sit
• V = Adj (attribute) + V (head): dry-clean
• Adv = Indefinite Adj (attribute) + Adv (head): somewhere

Exocentric
• N = Adj (attribute) + n (head): long-legs
• N = N (object0 + V (head): boot-black
• N = Adv (attribute) _V (head): out-crop
• Pro = Indefinite (attribute) + n (head): some-body
• Pro = indefinite (attribute) + numeral (head): some-one

2. Arabic Compounds

Most Arabic compounds consist of lexical items separated by a blank such as: ﻣﻜﺮﻣﺔ ﻣﻜﺎ. Very few compounds are agglutinated (spelled together) such as: ﻣﻜﺮﻡ. These are often referred to as mixed compounds ﻣﻜﺮم. No compounds in Arabic are hyphenated. Arabic compound nouns may be classified into the following classes:
2.1 Primary Compounds
Primary compounds similar to English compounds consisting of Greek and Latin bases do not exist in Arabic.

2.2 Secondary Compounds
A compound refers to a group of words usually two –but sometimes more-joined together into one vocabulary unit that functions as a single part of speech. Arabic compounds consist of the following composite forms (Frank p. 7).

2.3 COMPOUND NOUNS:

- Noun + apposited noun:
  This group of compounds covers the following: - personal proper nouns:
  ﻋﺂﻡ ﻟﻪﺎٰﺓ ﺛﺎٰٰﺭ ﺭﺍٰٰﺯ ﺪّﻱ ﺍﻟﺪﻲ ﻋﺒﺪ ﺑﻜﺮ ﺍﺑﻮ ﺍﻟﻘﻴﺲ ﺍﻣﺮﺅ ﻛﻠﺜﻮﻡ ﺍﻟﺪﺭ ﻗﺸﺮﺓ

- Geographical names:
  ﻋﺂﻡ ﻟﻪﺎٰﺓ ﺛﺎٰٰﺭ ﺭﺍٰٰﺯ ﺪّﻱ ﺍﻟﺪﻲ ﻋﺒﺪ ﺑﻜﺮ ﺍﺑﻮ ﺍﻟﻘﻴﺲ ﺍﻣﺮﺅ ﻛﻠﺜﻮﻡ ﺍﻟﺪﺭ ﻗﺸﺮﺓ

- Titles and
  ﻋﺂﻡ ﻟﻪﺎٰﺓ ﺛﺎٰٰﺭ ﺭﺍٰٰﺯ ﺪّﻱ ﺍﻟﺪﻱ ﻋﺒﺪ ﺑﻜﺮ ﺍﺑﻮ ﺍﻟﻘﻴﺲ ﺍﻣﺮﺅ ﻛﻠﺜﻮﻡ ﺍﻟﺪﺭ ﻗﺸﺮﺓ

- Others
- Compounds numerals

- Noun + adjective
These are very productive in Arabic, as in the following:

- Geographical names

- Subject names:

- Other technical terms

- Noun + apposited noun + adjective

- Noun + apposited N. + apposited N:
• Particle + noun
The negative particle ﻻ is used as a prefix, making possible the creation of words like:

• Particle + pronoun

VERBAL COMPOUNDS
These are very few verb compounds in Arabic. The following examples:

COMPOUND ADVERBS:
Adverb + particle:

Compound Particles:

Rhyme-Motivated Compounds

Arabic compounds have a gender assignment.
The plural formation of compound nouns. Compounds can often be
identified whenever their inflectional characteristics differ from those of the elements of which they are formed.

**Sress assignment**

3. **Comparison**

   English makes extensive use of compounding; **Arabic** very limited use. **Arabic** compounds are phrases with normal word-order, compressed into two or three lexical items. Those patterns of compounds that exist in **Arabic** are not particularly productive in making new formations. These patterns are outside the ordinary derivational structure of **Arabic**.

4. **Translation from English**

   a. Before translating primary compounds into **Arabic**, the student can break up each compound into its component parts, i.e., the roots, prefixes and suffixes; determine the meaning of each component and then determine the meaning of the whole term by adding up the meanings of all the components starting from the end backwards. The following are examples:

   - *appendicitis* = *appendi* + c + *itis* =
     
     ❄️ ٌ،ٌ + ﻷ + ﻛُ= ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
     
   - *photosynthesis* = *photo* + *synthesis* =
     
     ﻷ + ﻛُ += ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
     
   - *cardiovascular* = *cardi* + o + *vascul* + ar
     
     ﻷ + ٌ += ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
     
   - *pathology* = *patho* + logy =
     
     ﻷ + ﻗُ += ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
     
   - *geology* = *geo* + logy
     
     ﻷ + ﻗُ += ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
     
   - *autobiography* = *auto* + *bio* + graphy
     
     ﻷ + ٌ += ﻷ + ٌ + ٌ
b. Although compounds are made up of two or more parts each of which may be used as a separate word, but they are used as single terms. English compound verbs whether they consist of N+V, V+Adj, Particle +V, Adv+V should be translated by a verb: student teach, abysit, water ski, sleep-walk, unbathe, double-check, overdo, outreach, overlook, upgrade, ill-treat, dry-clean.

The morphemes -s, -ing, -ed, -er are added to the second element of the verb compounds. The majority of compound verbs are not formed by putting two lexemes together to form a new verb, but by back-formations or conversion from compound nouns (Adams), compounds formed of particles and verbs seem to be general verbal formations.

c. English compound adverbs are translated into prepositional phrases: overnight; in-sight.

d. English rhyme-motivated compounds are not translated word for word; their connotative meaning is translated, e.g.: hickety-pickety; stun-gun; flower-power; gang-bang; nitty-gritty; brain-drain.

e. English compound nouns and compound adjectives should be translated as a unit regardless of the class of the components of the compound. The Arabic equivalent to English compound nouns should be a noun and to compound adjective should be a modifier. Sometimes the equivalent is a compound noun or a compound modifier and sometimes it is a single word.

• In some compounds one element modifies the other. The modifying element may precede or it may follow t. In most English compounds the first element modifies the second. Differing classes may occupy either position in the compound, a noun as in woman teacher; an adjectives as in greenhouse; a pronoun as in she goat; a verb as in racehorse. When translating
a compound, begin by translating the second element. The first word is the qualifier and the second is the head.

Flower garden  ﺖزﻫﻮﺭ ﺣﺪﻳﻘﺔ
Garden flower  ﺖزﻫﺮﺓ gayla

Horse race  ﺖ(75,449),(173,503)(218,448),(317,502)(352,446),(451,500)(487,444),(586,497)

Woman teacher  ﺖ(102,501),(200,555)(235,499),(334,553)

Greenhouse  ﺖ(87,553),(185,607)(221,551),(320,605)  ﻟﺒﻲض

Village green  ﺖ(102,606),(201,660)(236,604),(335,658)  ﺗرﻴﻒ xJ(370,602),(469,655) g(494,600),(593,653)
Green village  ﺖ(88,658),(186,712) xJ(221,656),(319,710) g(353,653),(451,707)

Grammar school  ﻟﻌﺪد ﺑﺮﻳﻄﺎﻧﻴﺎ ٍف ٍم ﺞ ﻣ ﺑ ﻣ ٍد ﺛ ﻣ ٍد ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍد ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻛ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ 
School grammar  ﺖ(108,710),(206,765)  ﻣﻦ ﺖ ٍد ﻣ ٍد ﺞ ﻬ ﻋ ﺞ ﻛ ﻣ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ ﻢ ٍd ﻋ ﺞ 

(*Eckersley p. 21-22)

f. The meaning of some compounds cannot be determined from either component but lies outside the center of the compound. An external element must be added to interpret the compound. For example, a greenback is not ‘a back that is green’ but rather ‘an object that possesses a green back’, usually a dollar bill; similarly blockhead, tenderfoot, whiteface. In English such compounds reflect lack of compassion, as do redneck, baldhead, and bigmouth. blue-eyed, good-hearted, and absent-minded

g. Compounds may be usefully interpreted in relationship to other syntactic patterns of the language.
h. The meanings compounds convey to us come more from the experience of hearing them together than from our ability to analyze them into separate parts.

i. The compound may precede the noun it refers to (a ten-year-old boy) or follow the noun (a boy ten years old).

j. The first problem in dealing with compounds is how to distinguish phrasal compounds from simple phrases. Recourse must be had to additional non-syntactic features such as prosodic characteristics of stress, pitch or juncture, the use of special forms of the constituent elements, or the possibility of either interrupting the construction or expanding it by the addition of further modifiers. In languages that have stress systems, there are often special patterns of modulation signaling compounds as such. The presence of the juncture-phenomena (internal disjuncture) assists in identifying compounds.

k. It is single stress that differentiates compound nouns from word groups. In word groups both elements take stress, e.g. 'gold'chain, 'Oxford'University, 'woman'doctor, if the group consists of more than two words, each word receives primary stress: 'Tottenham 'Court 'Road.

Eckersley p. 21.

Context helps in the translation of compounds: inflection, concord or of government, word orders are important in determining the meaning of a compound.

5. Translation From Arabic

a. Arabic compound nouns that consist of a noun and an apposited noun cannot be translated into English. Such nouns are only transliterated. In Most proper names, both elements of the compound are capitalized: ﺑﻜﺮ ﻋﺎﺑﻮ Abu Bakr; ﺪﺒﺪﱡا Abdulla; ﻣُﺤYYYYد ﻣٴIyddin; ﺻée Yazan; ﺛٴOm Hani; ﺛٴOm Kulthoom; ﻃٴOm Mru'ul-kays; شٴاﺟر ﺛٴOm Shajaratul-DDurr.
b. Arabic compound geographical names are translated into their English equivalent: جزر الفلبين the Philippines, خط الاستواء the Equator, كفر السيدة ندين Dair Yaseen, مكة المكرمة Holy Makkah, بيت جلوت Ein Jaloot, شرم الشيخ Sharm El-Shaikh. An atlas or a gazetteer may be consulted to find out the English equivalent. Geographical name are usually capitalized. Both elements of the compound should be capitalized.

c. Arabic compounds that refer to titles and ranks are translated into their English equivalent titles and ranks. Literary translation should not be used here.

mayor, presidente, prime minister, general staff, foreign minister, presidente of the university, public prosecutor, jefe, juez, vice-president, secretario.

d. other Arabic compounds that consist of a noun + an apposited noun may have a single word equivalent or a compound: identity card edificio, skyscraper edificio, House of Representatives, universidad, house of the family, sunflower, inferiority complex, naturalize relationships.

e. Arabic geographical names that consist of a noun + an adjective or a noun + apposited noun + adjective are translated into their English equivalent geographical name: The Soviet

f. Arabic compounds consisting of a noun+an apposited noun+adjective are translated into their English equivalent geographical names or technical terms: 

- Arab Republic of Egypt
- Union of the Soviet socialist Republics
- Instant access card
- Mass media.

g. Arabic nouns consisting of N + apposited N + Apposited N are translated as follows:

- Peace-keeping force
- Prime minister.

h. Arabic compounds consisting of the particle ﯽ + N are translated by different negative prefixes as follows: 

- Non-metals; 
- Responsibility; 
- Anti-Semitism; 
- Wireless; 
- Indefinite; endless; 
- Asexual; 
- Agnosticism; 
- Asymmetrical; 
- Immorality; 
- Synchronic; 
- Extra-curricular; 
- Subconscious.

i. Arabic compounds consisting of a particle + N are not translated into the equivalent particle and the equivalent pronoun, but the equivalent meaning. Thus, 

j. Arabic verbal compounds (predicative compounds) that represent proper names cannot be translated into English, they are
transliterated only: ربة، مالى، رامالل، أب بط، سر، راء.

k. Arabic compounds adverbs have no equivalent compound adverbs, but what is translated is their meaning: \( \textit{k} \) whenever; \( \textit{l} \) then, at that time.

l. Arabic compound particles are not translated into English compound particles, but what is translated is the meaning of the particle. \( \textit{m} \) of which; \( \textit{n} \) about; \( \textit{o} \) lest should; \( \textit{p} \) of which; \( \textit{q} \) whoever; \( \textit{r} \) of what, about; \( \textit{s} \) as long as; \( \textit{t} \) hat, not to; \( \textit{u} \) whoever; \( \textit{v} \) whenever; \( \textit{w} \) until; \( \textit{x} \) whenever, the more. The context helps in determining the meaning of each compound particle. Any Arabic dictionary of particles should be consulted for the meaning of each particle. Some particles are translated by relative pronoun some by a conditional conjunction, and others by

m. Arabic rhyme-motivated compounds are not translated word for word. The connotative meaning of the compound is translated into English. To find out the meaning of such rhyme-motivated compounds, Arabic dictionaries xxxxx of should be consulted. Thus \( \textit{y} \) in a dilemma; \( \textit{z} \) my whereabouts.

n. Sine compounds may be written as two separate words, as hyphenated, or spelled as two separate words, a good dictionary should be consulted if there is doubt about how a compound is spelled (Frank p. 8).

o. In speech many noun compounds are stressed on the first part of the compound (arm ‘chair), other noun compounds receive a double stress on both elements (‘woman ‘teacher).
1. Acronyms

Acronyms are words formed from the initial letters of words in a phrase. New acronyms are freely produced, particularly for names of organizations. Acronyms pronounced as sequences of letters are called alphabetisms. The letters may represent full words: U.S.A. -> United States of America; or they represent elements in a compound or just parts of a word, e.g.: T.V. ==> television, GHQ General Headquarters. Many acronyms are pronouns as words, e.g.: NASA, laser. (Quirk,

*English Examples:*

NASA, UNESCO, Radar, Laser, USA, UN, USSR, RBC, T.B.,

*Arabic examples:*


In Arabic some acronyms are found in the Koran such as: ﻋﻮ، ﻣﻄ، ﻰﺴ، ﻷﻜ. Other acronyms that exist in Modern Standard Arabic like ﺍﻻﻭ، ﺍﻟﻨﺎ، ﺍﻟﻴﻮ، ﺍﻻﻭ، ﺍﺭ، ﺍﻟﻴﻮس، ﺍﻻﻭ، ﺍﺭ، ﺍﻟﻴﻮس are borrowed from English.

2. Abbreviations

An abbreviation is created when a single term is not written in its full form, but a certain part (a letter or letters) of the term is omitted.

**English Examples:**
- k.m. (kilometer); c.m. (centimeter); Eng. (English); bldg. (building);
- P.O. Box (Post Office Box); temp. (Temperature); p. (page); rdg. (Reading);
- comp. (comprehension).

**English Examples:**
not very productive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ﻋﻮ</th>
<th>ﻣﻄ</th>
<th>ﻰﺴ</th>
<th>ﻷﻜ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ﺍﻻﻭ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﻨﺎ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﻴﻮ</td>
<td>ﺍﻻﻭ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ﺍﺭ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﻴﻮس</td>
<td>ﺍﻻﻭ</td>
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<td>ﺍﻻﻭ</td>
<td>ﺍﺭ</td>
<td>ﺍﻟﻴﻮس</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Word Coinage=neologisms=word manufacture

A neologism is a new word or a new meaning for established words (Webster).

**English**
A new word can be coined (created) out right (with no morphological, phonological, or orthographic motivation whatsoever) to fit some purpose. Specific brand names are now often used as the general name for many brands of the actual product. *Kodak, nylon, Dacron, Xerox, Vaseline, Frigidaire, Kleenex, Jell-O, thermos, Teflon.* Computer programs have been used to provide new names which do not have etymologies. (Bauer).

**Arabic:**

Neologisms existing in Arabic are borrowed.

**4. Blends**

Blends are compounds created by clipping and blending elements of a complex term. Many blends have only a short life and are very informal, but some have become more or less fully accepted in the language. (Quirk)

**English**

*Caltech* (California Technical Institute), *brunch* (breakfast + lunch), *smog* (smoke + fog), *motel* (motor + hotel), *transistor* (transfer + resistor), *Eurasia* (Europe and Asia),

**Arabic**

"
The adverbs َغِبْ، َقِبْلَ، َحَتْ، َبَيْنِ، َفَوْقَ are used as a prefix and gives terms like: ُغرِبْعَنْيَة، ُقِبْلَهُنِيَة، ُقِبْلَلُغَة، ُقِبْلَنِطْقَة، ُقِبْلَائِرْخَ، ُغِبْرِيَسْيَة، ُغِبْلَغَة، ُفَوْبِنِسْجَيَة، ُبِقَارْي، ُبِجْبِلَيْ، ُبِيْخِلَيْ.

5. Back-formations
Back-formations are the creation of derived word forms by analogy, either by dropping an affix, or by creating a new base form:

**English**
peddler, peddle; editor, edit; hawker, hawk; New York, New Yorker; author, auth; enthusiasm, enthused; peas, pea; television, televise;
donation, donate;

**Arabic**
Very productive

6. Shortening (clipping)
Clipping denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables from a word. The clipped form tends to be used in informal style.

**English**
- shortening may occur at the beginning of the word as in phone===> telephone, airplane, plane;
- at the end of the word as in photo ==> photograph mathematics, math; gymnasium, gym; pianoforte, piano; saxophone, sax; facsimile, fax;
- Or at both ends as in flu ==> influenza.

**Arabic**
Shortening is not very common in Arabic. Syllables cannot be subtracted from Arabic words except in the following cases:
7. Extension

New words may be formed from already existing words, which appear to be analyzable, i.e., composed of more than one morpheme.

**English**
television: televise; general: generalize, generalization, generalizable, generalizability; grammar: grammatical, grammaticality, grammaticalization;

**Arabic**

Phrases can be shortened into single words. This is most common in informal speech.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{ﺎﳌﻌﻮﻳﺲ} & \Rightarrow \text{اﳌﻌﻮﻳﺲ} \\
\text{اﳌﻠﺋﺪﺍﺏ} & \Rightarrow \text{اﳌﻠﺋﺪﺍﺏ} \\
\text{اﳌﺘﺨﺼﺼﻴ} & \Rightarrow \text{اﳌﺘﺨﺼﺼﻴ} \\
\text{اﳌﺴﺘﺸﻔﻲ} & \Rightarrow \text{اﳌﺴﺘﺸﻔﻲ} \\
\text{اﳌﻜﺮﻣﺔ} & \Rightarrow \text{اﳌﻜﺮﻣﺔ} \\
\text{ة} & \Rightarrow \text{ة} \\
\end{align*}
\]
8. Conversion

Conversion is the derivational process by which an item changes its word-class without the addition of an affix.

- verb ==> Noun

- adjective ==> Noun
  *daily, *comic, *young, new-borns,

- Noun ==> Verb

- Adjective ==> verb
  *calm, *dirty, *empty.

- non-count N ==> count N
  two coffees, a difficulty

- proper ==> common
  A Mercedes, a Shakespeare, a Freudian, It is Greek to me.

- intransitive ==> transitive
  run, walk.

- transitive to intransitive
  wash, open,

- In some cases, conversion is approximate rather than complete, i.e. a word, in the course of changing its grammatical function, may
undergo a slight change of pronunciation or spelling. The most important kinds of alteration are voicing of final consonants as in advice=> advise, thief=> thieve, => sheath=> sheathe, house=> house and shift of stress as in conduct, conflict, contrast, convert, convict, export, extract, import, insult, permit, present, produce, rebel, record. When verbs or two syllables are converted into nouns, the stress is sometimes shifted from the second to the first syllable.

**Arabic**

While conversion is an extremely productive way of producing new words in English, **Arabic** makes no use of conversion. It is outside the ordinary derivational structure of Arabic.

9. **Onomatopoeia**

It is a modified type of coining in which a word is formed as an imitation of some natural sound associated with the object or action involved. It involves a model that serves as the basis for the new word, but unlike those of other processes, the onomatopoeic model is extralinguistic - it lies outside of language itself. Words that represent animal noises were originally attempts to imitate natural sounds.

**English**

- tinkle, buzz, pop, moo, bow-wow, mew, chickadee

**Arabic**

- ﺍٰﻟﺒﻘﺮ, ﺍٰﻟﺨﻮﺍﺭ, ﺍٰﻟﻤﺪﺍﻓﻊ, ﺍٰﻟﻨﺒﺎﺡ, ﺍٰﻟﻜﻠﺐ, ﺍٰﻟﻄﺎﺋﺮﺍﺕ, ﺍٰﻟﺮﻛﺮ, ﺍٰﻠﺨﻠﻞ, ﺍٰﻳﻤﺸﻢ, ﺍٰﻋﻤﻌﻢ, ﺍٰﻛﻔﺮ, ﺍٰﻠﻐﻠﻎ, ﺍٰﺻﻠﺼﻞ, ﺍٰﺯﻟﺰﻝ, ﺍٰﺳﻠﺴﻞ

10. **Borrowings**

Borrowings (transferred terms) are linguistic units introduced into a language from another language. This happens when for the new concept no term is available or can be easily formed. Borrowed terms
can be borrowed from the same language or from another language. Borrowings from foreign languages can be:

- a direct transfer of a term as it is
- a loan translation
- a loan word.

**English**

- Borrowings from common language:
  - bed, envelope, cell, nut, crane, wing, conjunction, current,

- borrowings from foreign languages:
  - Ar: algebra, alkali, arsenal, almanac.
  - L: bacteria, strata, data, axis, focus.
  - FR: machine, technique, attache.
  - It: pizza, spaghetti, balcony, corridor.
  - Rus: tsar, rouble, tundra, sputnik.
  - Per: coffee, fez, kiosk, tulip, caravan.
  - Ger: dock, monsoon, reef, yacht.

**Arabic**

- Borrowings from common language:
  - تﻄﻮﺭﺍﺕ, ﺻﺎﺩﺭ, ﻭﺍﺭﺩ, ﺘﺼﻔﻴﺔ, ﺟﻨﺎﺡ, ﺧﻠﻴﺔ, ﻋﺎﺭﺪ, ﺗﺼﻤﻴﻢ, ﻟﺤﺎﺀ, ﺒﻠﻮﻡ, ﺟﺎﻣﻌﺔ, ﻟﺤﻤﺎﺀ, ﻋﺮﻭﻑ, ﺟﺎﺩلاف, ﺛﻼﺛﺔ, ﻣﻭﺍﺩ

- Borrowings from foreign languages
  - ﺑﺎﺹﻫﻠ, ﺗﻠﻔﺰﻳﻮﻥ, ﺑﻜﺘﲑﻳﺎ, ﻲﻤﻮﺟﻠﻮﺑﲔ, ﻳﺰﺁ, ﺒﻠﻮﻡ, ﻋﺎﺭﺪ, ﺟﺎﻣﻌﺔ, ﻟﺤﻤﺎﺀ, ﻋﺮﻭﻑ, ﺟﺎﺩلاف, ﺛﻼﺛﺔ, ﻣﻭﺍﺩ

- Loan Words
  - ﺑﺮﳌﺎﻥﺍﺳﺘﺮﺍﺕﻴﺠﻴﺔ, ﺑﺮﻛﺎﻥ, ﺑﺴﺘﺮﺓ, ﻭﺭﺷﺔ

- loan translation
  - It is a way of creating new vocabulary items by translating the morphemes of foreign words into native morphemes.
A stem= when inflectional elements have been taken away from a form, what is left is a stem.

Morphology consists of two layers: an outer one involving inflectionally bound forms and an inner one the layer of derivation.

A stem consisting of more than one morpheme is termed a derived stem. These, in their turn, break down into primary and secondary derived stems. In both of these types we distinguish between derivatives, which are formed by the use of affixes of one type or another, and compounds, in which two or more elements are joined together without the use of derivational affixes.

PRIMARY DERIVATIVES      PRIMARY COMPOUNDS
Receive                  telegraph

SECONDARY DERIVATIVES    SECONDARY COMPOUNDS
Manly                   baby-sit

Primary means not involving a stem, i.e., involving forms which are bound on the derivational level; secondary means involving one or more stems, i.e., forms which are themselves susceptible of use in inflection.

In a primary derivative, none of its constituent element is a stem, but one is a derivational affix, and the other is a derivationally bound form termed a base. Primary derivatives are widespread in our learned vocabulary of Greek and Latin origin as in receive, deceive, conceive. In a secondary derivation, one of its immediate constituents is a stem, and the other is a derivational affix of some derivational formations as in manly, attractive.
If no derivational affix is involved, and the constituents of a derived stem are simply juxtaposed-with or without some meaningless connecting element-the formation is a compound. If two bases (derivationally bound forms) are joined together in this way, we have a primary compound or base-compound. Most of our examples of this kind occur in our learned Graeco-Latin vocabulary, as in telegraph. If both or all of the constituents of the compound are stems, we have a secondary compound or stem-compound. English has at least one fairly widespread type of stem compound, in our combinations of noun plus verb such as baby-sit.

Many derived forms are very complex, involving two or more layers of derivation. (Hall).

Before translating an English compound into Arabic, it would be helpful if the student identifies the type of compound. There are four types of compounds: coordinate, subordinate, possessive, and synthetic. Coordinate compounds consist of two parallel elements in which one element is repeated, e.g.: pitter-patter, flim-flam. Some coordinate compounds are additive as in thirteen 'three' and 'ten'. The Arabic equivalent to English coordinate compounds would be:

pitter-patter:
flim-flam:
Thirteen: ﻋﺸﺮﺓﺛﻼﺙ

In subordinate compounds one element modifies the other. The modifying element may precede or it may follow. Differing classes may occupy either position in the compound, a noun as in woman teacher; an adjectives as in greenhouse; a pronoun as in she goat; a verb as in racehorse. Most English compounds are subordinate with the first element modifying the second. The Arabic equivalent to English subordinate compounds would be a noun +a modifier: high school ﻣﺪﺭﺳﺔ١٣

In possessive compounds, an external element must be added to interpret the compound. For example, a greenback is not a back of a given color but rather an object that possesses a green back, usually a dollar bill; similarly blockhead, tenderfoot, whiteface. In English such compounds reflect lack of compassion, as do redneck, baldhead, and bigmouth. The
meaning of possessive compounds cannot be determined from either component but lies outside the center of the compound. Blue-eyed, good-hearted, absent-minded,

Compounds may be usefully interpreted in relationship to other syntactic patterns of the language.

Synthetic compounds are compact expressions. But they are commonly shortened in some way, e.g.: pickpocket reflects a sentence like 'he picks pockets'. Compounds may reflect syntactic structures of various types: typical sentence patterns, sentence patterns with the 'have' relationship, and sentence patterns with attributive relationships. (Lehmann)

Adjectives may be embedded in nominal constructions with no special marker (black coffee). For analyzing embedded constructions, the term head is used to refer to the center of the construction, the term attribute for the modifier. (Lehmann)

An endocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents are comparable to the complete construction. An exocentric construction is one in which the primary constituent or constituents do not function like the complete construction. (Lehmann)

Through substitution replacements or substitutes, often called proforms, may stand for the central entities of basic patterns. Substitutes may be used in basic patterns or when basic patterns are added to one another. Occasionally the replacement for an entity may be zero, as in I like this tie better than that one. As substitutes for nouns, pronouns are used in many languages. Substitutes may also be used for verbs. (Lehmann)

Constructions may also exhibit indications of interrelationships through inflection or other patterns involving selection; these indications are the result of concord or of government phenomena. Government is the determination of one form by another. Verbs and prepositions govern specific forms in English. (Lehmann)

The first problem in dealing with compounds is how to distinguish phrasal compounds from simple phrases. Recourse must be had to additional
non-syntactic features such as prosodic characteristics of stress, pitch or juncture,

the use of special forms of the constituent elements,

or the possibility of either interrupting the construction or expanding it by the addition of further modifiers.

In languages that have stress systems, there are often special patterns of modulation signaling compounds as such.

The presence of the juncture-phenomena (internal disjuncture) assists in identifying compounds. Compounds are normally unsplittable and cannot be fully expanded. 'Beware' and 'be very aware'.

In languages with extensive inflectional systems and use of stem-vowels, compounds are frequently distinguished by use of special connecting vowels.

In languages with extensive inflectional systems, compounds can often be identified whenever their inflectional characteristics differ from those of the elements of which they are formed. No matter what the gender or plural formation of the noun comprising the second element of such a compound, the compound as a whole is always masculine and invariable, thus setting it apart morphologically from its component forms.

The contrast between endocentric and exocentric is present in compounds as well as in derivatives. If the function of the compound is the same as that of one of its elements, it is to be classed as endocentric. If the compound belongs to a form-class or subdivision of one different from that of its elements, then it is exocentric. (Hall).

The compound may precede the noun it refers to (a ten-year-old boy) or follow the noun (a boy ten years old).

The meanings they convey to us come more from the experi
Exercises

[1] Transliterate the following English words, then give 3 changes that took place in pronouncing and transliterating those words.

1. microfilm
2. manganese
3. Pasteur
4. Czechoslovakia

[2] Translate the following singular and plural nouns:

a. parentheses
b. a flock of geese
c. economics
d. crew
e. lady doctor
f. stimuli
g. ٌّٓٔ
h. ٌّٓٔ
i. ٌّٓٔ
j. ٌّٓٔ

[5] Translate the following proper nouns:

a. ٍٕٔ
b. ٍٕٔ
c. ٍٕٔ
d. the Midland Bank
e. Christianity
f. The Geneva Convention

[6] Translate the following Arabic compounds, then give a rule for translating this type of compounds.

1. ٍٕٔ
2. ٍٕٔ
3. ٍٕٔ
4. ٍٕٔ
5. ٍٕٔ

[7] Translate the following neologisms, blends, abbreviations, back-formations, and borrowings.

5 marks)
1. B.A. 2corp.
3. lb. 4POW
5. Xerox 6

[8] Give 5 Arabic titles used for kings, presidents, ministers, princes, administrators...etc. and their English equivalents.
   (5 marks)

[9] Translate the following Arabic names of instruments. Examine them and their English equivalents and give a rule that explains when such Arabic terms are coined.
   (8 marks)

1. ﻣﺠﻴﻞ ﺍﻟﻤﻤﺎﻝ
2. ﺗﺼﻮﻳﺮ ﺍﻟﻤﻤﺎﻝ
3. ﻣﺤﺎﻄﺔ ﺍﻟﻤﻤﺎﻝ
4. ﻣﺎﻟﻮ ﺍﻟﻤﻤﺎﻝ
5. ﺗﺠﻴﻞ ﺍﻟﻤﻤﺎﻝ

[10] Translate the following derived words, then give rules that help in translating words containing the affix {en}.
   (7 marks)

1. enrich 2. enclose
2. oxen 4. brethren
5. sadden
6. darken
7. wooden
8. silken

[11] Translate the underlined English idioms in standard Arabic:
(5 marks)
1. He is every inch a gentleman.
2. Yes, that goes without saying.
3. It was so dark. I couldn't tell who was who.
4. In my mind's eye.
5. She was a teacher that was liked by one and all.

[12] Translate the following Arabic idioms and cliches:
(5 marks)
1. ﻲﺋﺀ ﺑﺄﻡ ﺭﺃﻳﺘﻪ
2. ﻭﺍﻟﺴﻨﺪﺍﻥ ﻲﻠﻤﻃﺮﻕ ﺛﻴﺄ
3. ﺏﻌﻳﺮ ظﻬﺮ ﻣﺸﻘﻤﺖ ﺑﺘﻜColour
4. ﺍﻵﻓﺎﻕ ﻭﺷﺎﻫﺮ ﻓﻴﺘﻂ
5. ﻓﻼﻥ ﺑﻴﺪ ﺍﺧﺬ

[13] Give 2 Arabic meanings for each ambiguous sentence below:
(4 marks)
1. John finally decided on the boat.
2. The governor is a dirty street fighter.
Translate the following sentences. Pay attention to verb tense, mood, aspect...etc. (5 marks)

1. Don't ever open that door.

2. He wouldn't have anyone think badly of him.

3. I didn't use to get tired when I played tennis.

4. Could he have missed the train.

5. That he had failed once was no indication that he would fail again.

Translate the underlined social formulas: (2 marks)

- Goodness! I've just remembered. I've promised to meet a friend in five minutes. I'm afraid I really must to go. I'm sorry. "Bye.

- Why don't you come with us? there'll be tea and cookies. Oh! what a shame -- I am going to be somewhere else.

Give the Arabic equivalent for each of the following cultural points: (2 marks)

- Coffee drinking is very casual, often served without a saucer.
- Social security is a branch of the federal Department of Health, Education and Welfare.
[17] The following English adjectives have no comparative and superlative forms. Do their Arabic equivalents have comparative forms. When? Why?(7 marks)
- perfect
- unique
- monthly
- square
- wooden

[18] There are a number of idiomatic constructions with the comparative. Give their Arabic equivalent. (3 marks)
- Every day you are getting better and better.
- he ran faster and faster.
- his voice got weaker and weaker.

[19] Comparatives are used in clauses of proportion that express a proportionality or equivalence of tendency or degree between two circumstances. Translate the following clauses of proportion and give rules that would help in translating such clauses.
- The harder you work, the more you will be paid.
- The more he gets, the more he wants.
- The sooner that work is finished, the better.
 miệng العربية. المراجع

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حَمْدُ ﻋَلَى ﻋِدْدِهِ ﻣَنْ ﻓِي ﺷَاءِ ١٩٨٧ ﻷَنَّهُ ﻓِي ﱡالعربية ﻣَﻌْجماً ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ ﻓِي ﱡالمشتري ﻟَياضٍ
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